DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 323 655 EA 022 239

TITLE Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A Vision for the 1990s. Background Document.
PUB DATE Apr 90
NOTE 171p.; For a related document, see EA 022 239.
AVAILABLE FROM Education and Employment Division, World Bank, 1818 H Street N.W., Washington, DC 20433.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; Demography; Educational Development; Educational Economics; Elementary Secondary Education; *Equal Education; *Excellence in Education; Geographic Distribution; *Individual Development; *International Cooperation; Learning Experience; Master Plans; Policy Formation; Population Distribution; Population Growth; Student Development

ABSTRACT

A framework for global educational improvement adopted by the World Conference on Education for All is presented in this document. Included are examples of how the "expanded vision" of basic education have been applied in practice. Five chapters summarize worldwide educational needs and strategies to meet them. "Global Challenges and Human Development" examines international economics, population, and environmental trends in relation to human development. "The Context and Effects of Basic Learning in the World" discusses the financial and social aspects of adult education and child development. "An Expanded Vision of Basic Education for All" examines ways in which the educational vision can be developed and implemented. "Meeting Basic Learning Needs: Analyzing Policies and Programs" analyzes how the learning needs of children, youth, and adults can be met. "Strategies for the 1990s" outlines recommendations for priority actions at the national, regional, and world levels. Annexes provide information on: (1) basic data on national characteristics and indicators of financial capacity, educational effort, processes and results, social effects, and adult education participation; (2) an analysis of alternatives for funding primary schooling; and (3) a selected bibliography. The text of "World Declaration on Education for All" is appended. Six tables, eight charts, and 39 boxed textual highlights are included. (LMI)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

ED323655

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
J. Feather
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

# MEETING BASIC LEARNING NEEDS: A VISION FOR THE 1990s

EA 022 239

## World Conference on Education for All

5-9 March 1990
Jomtien, Thailand

EA

WCEFA
New York, April 1990

Original: English

# Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A Vision for the 1990s

Background Document

**World Conference on Education for All**
**Meeting Basic Learning Needs**

Jomtien, Thailand
5-9 March 1990

*Published by*
*the Inter-Agency Commission*
*(UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, WORLD BANK)*
*for the World Conference on Education for All*

*UNICEF House*
*Three United Nations Plaza*
*New York, N.Y. 10017*
*U.S.A.*

*First printing: April 1990*

*This publication may be freely reproduced and quoted in all or in part, provided that due credit is given.*

*The geographical names, titles, classifications and denominations used in this document do not imply any opinion or judgement on the legal or other status of any territory, nor any endorsement or acceptance of any boundary.*

# *Preface*

This document provides useful background information on the rationale and ideas contained in the ***World Declaration on Education for All*** and the ***Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs***, which were adopted by the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 5-9 March 1990). The text of the ***World Declaration*** is given in the Appendix; Chapter 5 is based on the ***Framework for Action***. The reader will also find in this document numerous examples of actual experiences in meeting basic learning needs to illustrate how the "expanded vision" of basic education can be applied.

The Executive Secretariat of the Inter-Agency Commission (established by UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF and the WORLD BANK to organize the World Conference) prepared this background document. In doing so, it drew on a large number of reports and studies, and on the suggestions generated by three technical workshops that brought together specialists from five continents, as well as on the comments received on earlier versions (Drafts A and B).

An earlier version (Draft B) was distributed to participants in the nine regional consultations and three international consultations convened by the Inter-Agency Commission between October 1989 and January 1990, as well as to participants in the World Conference. The present final version was revised after the Conference by the Executive Secretariat to conform to the final texts of the ***World Declaration*** and the ***Framework for Action*** as adopted at Jomtien, and to incorporate new material that came to light during the regional consultations and the World Conference. This document does NOT constitute a policy statement of the Inter-Agency Commission, nor of the sponsors, co-sponsors and associate sponsors of the World Conference.

This Background Document for the World Conference on Education for All was prepared by a team in the Executive Secretariat of the WCEFA Inter-Agency Commission comprising:

Wadi D. Haddad, Executive Secretary
(World Bank, Washington, D.C.)

Nat J. Colletta, Deputy Executive Secretary
(UNICEF, New York)

Nigel Fisher, Deputy Executive Secretary
(UNICEF, New York)

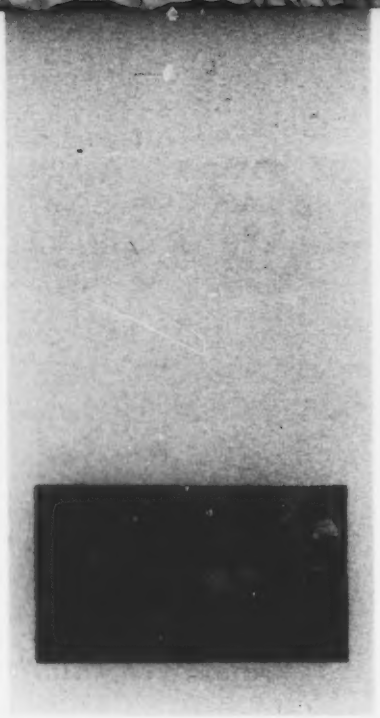
Michael Lakin, Deputy Executive Secretary
(UNESCO, Paris)

Margaret Sutton, Consultant
(Stanford University, Palo Alto, California)

Douglas Windham, Consultant
(State University of New York, Albany)

Many others provided useful contributions and comments. The Executive Secretariat organized several workshops to obtain advice on critical issues from researchers, policymakers, and practitioners from around the world. In addition, helpful comments were received from the various agencies sponsoring the World Conference. The team used educational data provided by UNESCO's Office of Statistics, and social and economic data provided by UNICEF and the World Bank.

# *Table of Contents*




| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Preface** | | **iii** |
| **Glossary** | | **ix** |
| **1.** | **Global Challenges and Human Development** | **1** |
| | A. Introduction | 1 |
| | B. The Global Challenges | 2 |
| | i. Economic stagnation and decline | 2 |
| | ii. Economic disparities | 2 |
| | iii. Marginalized populations | 2 |
| | iv. Environmental degradation | 3 |
| | v. Rapid population growth | 3 |
| | C. Constraints on Human Development | 4 |
| | D. The Role of Human Development in Addressing Global Challenges | 6 |
| | E. Defining Basic Learning Needs | 11 |
| | F. New Opportunities for Human Development | 13 |
| **2.** | **The Context and Effects of Basic Learning in the World** | **15** |
| | A. Basic Education Data | 15 |
| | B. Indicators of the Context and Effects of Basic Education | 15 |
| | i. Background characteristics | 16 |
| | ii. Financial capacity | 18 |
| | iii. Educational effort | 22 |
| | iv. Educational effects | 23 |
| | v. Social impacts | 26 |
| | C. The State of Adult Basic Education | 27 |
| | D. The State of Early Child Development | 28 |
| | E. Progress and Prospects | 30 |

**3. An Expanded Vision of Basic Education For All** 33

A. Shaping the Vision 33
i. Universalizing access and promoting equity 33
ii. Focussing on learning 35
iii. Broadening the means and scope of basic education 36
iv. Enhancing the environment for learning 38
v. Strengthening partnerships 38
B. Requirements for Implementing the Vision 39
i. Defining a supportive policy context 39
ii. Mobilization of resources 39
iii. Strengthening international solidarity 40

**4. Meeting Basic Learning Needs: Analyzing Policies and Programmes** 41

A. Introduction 41
B. Early Child Development 43
C. Meeting the Basic Learning Needs of Children 45
i. Increasing relevance 46
ii. Improving quality 49
iii. Promoting equity 53
iv. Enhancing efficiency 60
D. Meeting the Basic Learning Needs of Youth and Adults 62
i. Content and relevance 64
ii. Programmes and quality 68
iii. Effects and equity 70
iv. Monitoring and efficiency 72

**5. Strategies for the 1990s** 79

A. Priority Action at National Level 80
i. Assessing needs, planning action and defining targets 80
ii. Creating a supportive policy environment 83
iii. Designing policies to improve basic education 84
iv. Improving managerial, analytical and technological capacities 84
v. Mobilizing information and communication channels 86
vi. Building partnerships and mobilizing resources 86
B. Priority Action at the Regional Level 90
i. Exchanging information, experience and expertise 90
ii. Undertaking joint projects 91
C. Priority Action at World Level 93
i. Status and prospects of external funding 93
ii. Concerted and sustained long-term support for national and regional activities 95
iii. Enhancing national capacities 97
iv. Consultations on policy issues 97
v. Co-operation within the international context 98

**Annex 1: Basic Data** 99

Country Key 99
Annex Table 1: Background National Characteristics 100
Annex Table 2: Indicators of Financial Capacity 108
Annex Table 3: Indicators of Educational Effort 116
Annex Table 4: Indicators of Educational Process and Results 124
Annex Table 5: Indicators of Social Effects 132
Annex Table 6: Participation in Adult Education 136
Technical Notes 138

**Annex 2: Financing Primary Schooling: An Analysis of Alternatives** 145

**Annex 3: Selected Bibliography** 149

**Appendix: World Declaration on Education for All** 153

**Boxes**

1.01 Street Children in Brazil 6
1.02 Refugees: Displaced Children at Risk 8
1.03 The Highlander Center 9
1.04 Population Education 10
1.05 Environmental Education: The Thai Magic Eyes Concept 11
1.06 Global Awareness: The Emergence of Global and Development Eduation 12
1.07 Korea: Providing Primary Education for All 13

2.01 Ghana: Improvement under Austerity 21
2.02 Private Primary Schools Enroll One out of Eight Pupils 22
2.03 DIKMAS: Income Generation and Literacy Programmes for Women in Indonesia 25

3.01 Educating Girls: An Investment in Development 34
3.02 Alternative Primary Education in Bangladesh 35
3.03 Improving Primary School Performance, Nutrition and Health 37

4.01 International Comparability of Learning Outcomes 42
4.02 Preschools for Palestinian Refugees 44
4.03 India: Integrated Child Development Services 45
4.04 Kenya: Examination Reform Improves Performance 47
4.05 Language: A Moving Force 48
4.06 Early Child Care in Brazil Pays for Itself 50
4.07 Interactive Radio Instruction: US$1 per Student-Year 51
4.08 School-Based Management Comes to Dade County, USA 54
4.09 Techniques for Teaching and Learning 56

4.10 Zambia: Providing Education for the Disable: Beyond Rhetoric 57
4.11 Senegal: Incremental Reform and Improved Educational Efficiency 58
4.12 Improved Teacher Quality through In-Service Training 59
4.13 Colombia: Escuela Nueva 60
4.14 A Linguistic Renassance in Senegal 62
4.15 Modern Communication for Family Life Education 65
4.16 The Impact of Technological Change on Basic Learning Needs 66
4.17 Literacy Motivation: Learning to Fly 67
4.18 TOTOTO Home Industries 72
4.19 Adult Education in China 73
4.20 Trinidad and Tobago: Government-NGO Partnership for Basic Education 74
4.21 The Service Centre Concept: Support for Out-of-School Training 75

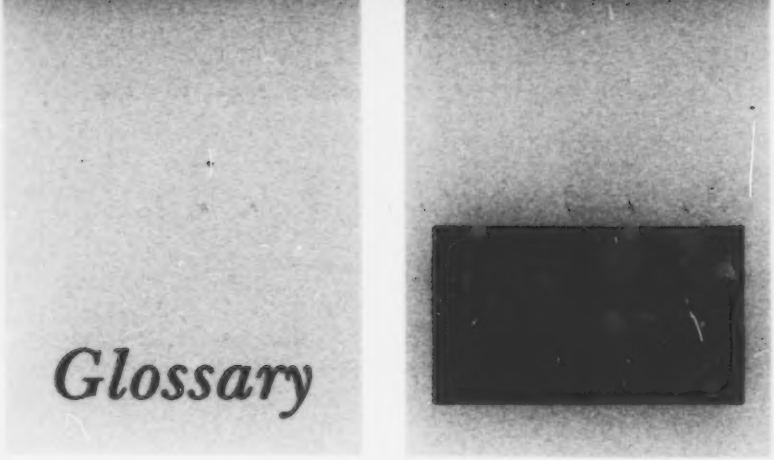
5.01 Jordan: A Plan of Action for Education Reform 81
5.02 Empowering the Education Manager 85
5.03 The Philippines: Increased Efficiency and Local Support 87
5.04 APPEAL: Regional Co-operation in Education for All 91
5.05 Regional Collaboration in the Sahel: Common Solutions to Shared Problems 92

**Charts**

Chart 1: Regional Economic Trends 3
Chart 2: Government Expenditure and Growth in GDP 19
Chart 3: External Balances of Developing Countries 20
Chart 4: Gross Enrolment Ratios by Regions 24
Chart 5: Adult Participation Rates by Country Category 29
Chart 6: Per Student Expenditure by Region 53
Chart 7: Percent of Aid to Primary Education 95
Chart 8: Distribution of Aid to Primary Education 95

**Tables**

Table 1: Illiteracy Rates by Region 5
Table 2: Growth of Real GDP 17
Table 3: Population Increase and Growth Rates 17
Table 4: Economic and Social Indicators for Selected Countries 27
Table 5: Numbers and Rates of Illiterates Aged 15+, 1985 71
Table 6: External Assistance to Education, 1981-1986 94



# Glossary

**Learning** refers to the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, attitudes and values; in some contexts it refers to what (content) is learned.

**Basic learning needs** refer to the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for people to survive, to improve the quality of their lives, and to continue learning.

**Learning opportunities** refer to a wide range of educational activities organized with the intent to promote or facilitate learning.

**Learning achievement** refers to the actual skills, attitudes, values and level of knowledge acquired by the individual; it implies some measurement or demonstration that learning has occurred.

**Education** refers to the provision of learning opportunities in a purposeful and organized manner through various means including, but not limited to, schools and other educational institutions.

**Formal education** refers to education provided through the schools and similar established institutions for education and training; it generally conforms to a prescribed curriculum leading to some form of certification.

**Basic education** refers to education intended to meet basic learning needs; it includes instruction at the first or foundation level, on which subsequent learning can be based; it encompasses early childhood and primary (or elementary) education for children, as well as education in literacy, general knowledge and life skills for youth and adults; it may extend into secondary education in some countries.

**Essential learning tools** refers to literacy, numeracy, and problem solving, and depending on the social context, may also include such other tools as computer operation, library use, and the ability to interpret media messages.

**Literacy** refers to the ability to read and write with comprehension, as well as to make simple arithematical calculations (numeracy); in an expanded sense, literacy may refer to a set of basic cognitive skills enabling one to obtain and process information in a meaningful manner (e.g., media literacy, science literacy, computer literacy).

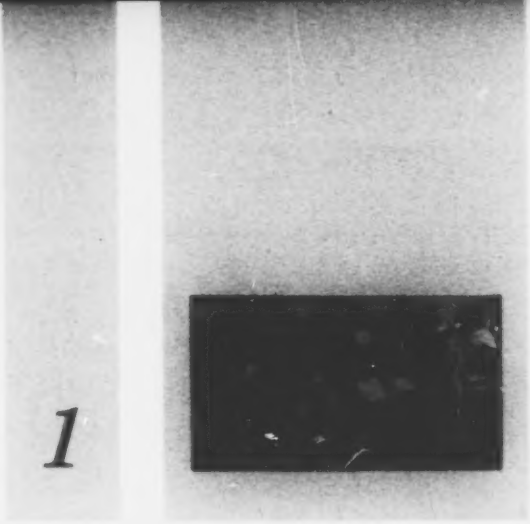
**Primary education** refers to the provision of first level instruction to children, usually in the 6-11 age group;

**Primary schooling** refers to the provision of primary education through formal schools.

**Education for All** refers to the provision of basic education for all children, youth and adults.

**Human development** refers to the concept which views the general well-being of humans as the focus and purpose of development action; it involves the application of learning to improve the quality of life.

**Human resources development** is used as a narrower term, referring to the development and conservation of individuals' capacities to contribute to social and economic development.



# 1

# *Global Challenges and Human Development*

## A. Introduction

On the threshold of the 21st century, the world faces major global challenges characterized by the threat of economic stagnation and decline; widening economic disparities among and within nations; millions of people dislocated and suffering from war, civil strife, and crime; widespread environmental degradation; and rapid population growth. These challenges pose problems of direct or indirect concern to all nations, although the nature, extent, and incidence of the effects of the problems vary according to each nation's specific conditions and societal context. These challenges have the potential to constrain the development of individuals and even whole societies, and are already retarding the ability and willingness of governments, nongovernmental organizations, communities, families, and individuals to support new investments in *basic education*, the very foundation of human development.

Fortunately, the present time also presents a unique opportunity to redress this situation. Global movements towards peace, the dramatic reduction in cold war tensions, and the positive aggregate growth patterns in many countries in recent years combine to create a more co-operative and committed international climate in support of *human development*, which views the well-being of all humans as the focus and purpose of societal development efforts. Human development itself involves an interactive process consisting of psychological and biological maturation as well as learning, enabling individuals to improve their well-being and that of their community and nation. It is broader than, but inclusive of, human resource development, which relates to the development and conservation of manpower to contribute to social and economic development.

There is a growing consensus that human development must be at the core of any development process; that in times of economic adjustment and austerity, services for the poor have to be protected; that education – the empowerment of individuals through the provision of learning – is truly a human right and a social responsibility. Never before has the nature of learning and basic education been so well diagnosed and understood in its psychological, cultural, social and economic dimensions. Today, the sheer quantity of information available in the world – much of it relevant to survival and basic well-being – is exponentially greater than that available only a few years ago, and the rate of its growth is accelerating. This includes information about obtaining more life-enhancing knowledge – or

learning how to learn. A synergistic effect occurs when important information is coupled with another modern advance – our new capacity to communicate. The financial, technological, and human resources available on a world scale to meet *basic learning needs* today are unprecedented. When these factors are combined with the reaffirmation of political commitment to meeting basic learning needs, the next decade and the new century can be seen to provide an opportunity for human development sufficient to help meet the real and serious challenges the world faces.

During the four decades since the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirmed the right of everyone to education, substantial and sincere efforts have been made by the countries of the world to implement this right. Now, concurrent with International Literacy Year (1990) and in line with the objectives of the World Decade for Cultural Development (1988-97) and of the Fourth United Nations Development Decade (1991-2000), there is a need to reinforce and extend basic education to bring into being forms of sustainable national development that reconcile cultural and technological change within social and economic development.

The current optimism about basic education is not founded on naive assumptions that education is the sole determinant of individual or societal change: various prerequisite and concomitant changes are required in general political, social and economic structures and processes. Neither does the optimism ignore the seriousness and significance of the challenges that remain. However, the very challenges that constrain new basic education efforts reinforce the importance of these efforts. While not sufficient by itself to resolve the larger social and economic challenges faced by the world's nations, more and better basic education is a necessary part of any resolution of these challenges.

### B. The Global Challenges

*(i) Economic stagnation and decline*

Over the past decade, per capita gross domestic product (GDP) has fallen from 10 to 25 percent in much of sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. South Asian countries on the whole have maintained more steady macroeconomic growth, but substantial parts of their populations still live in absolute poverty, with food and nutrition problems among the most serious in the world. Although the incidence of unemployment is worse in developing nations, unemployment rates in the industrial market economies of Western Europe rose to over 10 percent in the 1980s. These economies are now home to over 13 million of the world's estimated 100 million formally unemployed. Also, substantial disagreement exists over the sustainability of current growth levels among the developed economies, particularly in view of their interdependence with the weakened economies of developing countries and environmental degradation.

*(ii) Economic disparities*

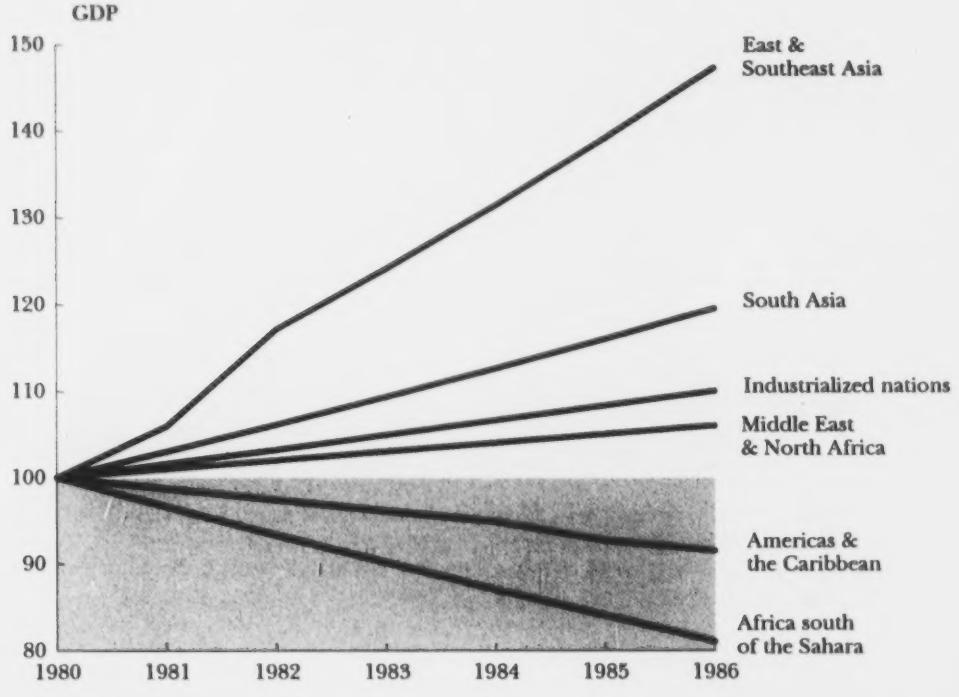
The 1980s have seen economic disparities widen both within and among nations (see Chart 1 for regional trends). Rising debt burdens, falling prices for commodities, and policies restricting the free flow of trade have created a net outflow of as much as US$60 billion per year in capital and other resources from developing countries to wealthier nations. Industrial countries, in turn, face shrinking markets for exports, with negative effects on their own labour markets and on prospects for fiscal revenue. With the unprecedented expansion of knowledge during the past decade, inequitable access to formal education and other *learning opportunities* has engendered even greater economic disparities among people within a single nation. The wealthy become more educated; the uneducated grow poorer.

*(iii) Marginalized populations*

Armed conflicts and civil disorder continue to command public attention and resources in many countries. More than 14 million people, uprooted from their homelands, lived as refugees in foreign countries in 1987, and some 13 million of them reside in the most impoverished countries of Africa, the Middle East, and South Asia. War, human rights abuses, and natural disasters have created an even greater number of internal refugees who are displaced within their own countries and have little recourse to international protection or assistance. Increased urbanization and unemploy-

**Chart 1: Regional Economic Trends**

Gross domestic product per capita by region of the world 1980-86
(1980 = 100)




Source: UNICEF.

ment, with the concomitant problems of crime and illegal drug use, have created intolerable living conditions for millions more people the world over. In addition, historical conditions of ethnic and linguistic minorities and the poor have created disadvantaged groups within many societies.

*(iv) Environmental degradation*

Exploitation of the natural environment and pressures on the land from the growth and relocation of populations have accelerated the rate of environmental degradation alarmingly. Improper waste disposal, unregulated use of toxic chemicals, and industrial accidents imperil the biological integrity of land, air, and water. Deforestation from commercial logging and the cumulative effects of many subsistence activities have caused environmental destruction from landslides, flooding, desertification, and reduced production of oxygen. The environment knows no national or regional boundaries: a natural resource depleted in one place is lost to the world. Pollution tends to spread both geographically and over time, and the costs of environmental repair, *where repair is possible,* far exceed the costs of prevention.

*(v) Rapid population growth*

Population growth continues to exacerbate economic, social, and environmental problems, particularly in the poorest parts of the world. In 1987, the world population

exceeded the 5 billion mark, an increase of 1 billion in less than fifteen years. Ninety percent of this growth took place in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, and most of it was in the countries least able to care for or utilize the additional population effectively. The harsh reality of absolute poverty, with its guarantee of high infant mortality and a precarious livelihood for the sick and the aged, encourages high rates of reproduction that further entrench a lifestyle of poverty among the growing numbers of the poor. Demographic trends in industrial countries follow a different aggregate pattern, but even there the more disadvantaged groups are growing at a higher rate than the population as a whole.

### C. Constraints on Human Development

The global challenges impose constraints on human development in several ways. First, they create a *competition for resources* to meet various social needs, all of which appear urgent and legitimate. There is a need to provide the poor and disadvantaged with basic subsistence needs, to remove the sources of social dislocation and disadvantage, to protect the environment, and to control excessive population growth. All these demands on a nation's public and private resources can, and sometimes do, take precedence over the learning needs of the population.

In addition, the *austerity measures* adopted by governments suffering from inadequate financial resources can cause disproportionate cutbacks in societal development efforts. The education sector, because it produces knowledge and skills, and the health sector, because it protects and extends the value of the population, are critical for development. However, government spending on health and education has declined – in relative and, in some cases, absolute terms – in many of the world's poorest countries. In twenty-five out of thirty African and Latin American countries for which comparable data are available, the share of the government budget going to health and education has declined in the 1980s. In the world's thirty-seven poorest countries, spending per capita on health has declined 50 percent since 1980, while per pupil expenditure on education has declined by 25 percent. In this context, the momentum of many societal development efforts has stalled, leaving hundreds of millions of people in conditions of absolute poverty. They are without adequate nutrition to sustain learning or labour, susceptible to diseases that could be controlled, unable to read or write, and so denied access to the very knowledge and skills that could improve the quality of their lives dramatically.

*Economic development does not automatically increase the quantity or quality of human development.* A society must decide for itself to devote resources to education and other learning opportunities. The development experiences in the 1980s have demonstrated that social advancement is a fragile process. Without sustained efforts to improve the circumstances of the poorest members of society, overall development gains are undermined. The enormity of the global challenges and the differences among rates of national and individual development now threaten further deterioration in the quality and equity of life chances. Unless dramatic and effective steps are taken to address these threats, the future may bring even greater poverty and growing polarization within and among societies. A world in which only an elite few will live in health, safety, and prosperity must be avoided; all people deserve the opportunity to fulfill their human potential and contribute to shaping their society. In times of economic decline, austerity, and competing social and economic demands, *basic education must be protected through overt measures.* Otherwise, generations will be lost and whole segments of the population excluded from the development process.

The phenomenal expansion of the national education systems since the 1950s has continually increased the number and proportion of children in school and of adults with basic literacy skills. However, the absolute number of out-of-school children and youth and of illiterate adults has also increased dramatically in the past thirty years. Today, more than one-quarter of all adults still can neither read nor write (see Table 1). The more than 105 million children who are not in school mean adult illiteracy will remain a common problem into the next century.

The difficulty of combatting nonschooling and illiteracy is compounded by other

**Table 1 Illiteracy Rates by Region**
(Estimates and Projections)

| | *1970* | | | *1980* | | | *1990* | | | *2000* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Region* | *No.* | *Rates* | *Fem.* | *No.* | *Rates* | *Fem.* | *No.* | *Rates* | *Fem.* | *No.* | *Rates* | *Fem.* |
| World Total | 760 | 33 | 58 | 824 | 29 | 60 | 882 | 25 | 60 | 912 | 22 | 60 |
| Industrial countries | 29 | 4 | 62 | 23 | 3 | 61 | 17 | 2 | 64 | 14 | 2 | 64 |
| Developing countries | 731 | 48 | 58 | 801 | 40 | 60 | 865 | 34 | 60 | 898 | 28 | 60 |
| Africa | 140 | 71 | 58 | 156 | 60 | 60 | 165 | 48 | 62 | 168 | 35 | 62 |
| Asia | 551 | 44 | 58 | 604 | 38 | 60 | 659 | 32 | 60 | 693 | 28 | 60 |
| Latin America & the Caribbean | 44 | 27 | 57 | 44 | 20 | 57 | 42 | 15 | 57 | 38 | 10 | 55 |
| Arab States[a] | – | – | – | 57 | 62 | 61 | 64 | 51 | 62 | 69 | 40 | 64 |
| Least developed countries[b] | 95 | 81 | 56 | 110 | 73 | 57 | 25 | 62 | 60 | 138 | 51 | 60 |

Note: No. denotes number of illiterates of both sexes, aged 15+ (in millions)
Rates denotes rates of illiteracy among both sexes, aged 15+ (in percentages)
Fem. denotes females as a percentage of total illiterates aged 15+

a. Data for Arab States also included in Africa and Asia.
b. Data for least developed countries also included in regions.

Source: UNESCO; projections based on 1982 assessment.

problems. Many students drop out before completing their primary schooling; others complete school but fail to acquire the necessary learning. In addition, whatever their previous formal education, significant parts of the adult population have yet to acquire the basic knowledge and life skills that, in addition to literacy, would improve the quality of their lives at home, in their communities, and in support of their nations.

The critical problem facing governments and development agencies today is how to specify and meet the basic learning needs of all. These needs cannot be met by a simple quantitative expansion of educational programmes as they now exist although such aggregate expansion may be part of the solution in certain countries. Despite the efforts and real accomplishments of previous decades, more and more people have needs for basic learning that are not being met. Continuing human development means that future generations of children, youth, and adults will need greater access to and continued participation in primary schooling and equivalent learning opportunities that provide an acceptable level of learning attainment.

Given the number of children not currently enrolled in any school at all, it is imperative that each country identify these out-of-school populations, determine why they are not participating, and adapt or design appropriate educational programmes to their specific conditions and needs. In general, those out-of-school are likely to be female, to be poor, to be ethnic or linguistic minorities, and to live in urban or peri-urban slums and remote rural locations. To meet the basic learning needs of such groups, formal education and other educational interventions must deal with the realities of their life circumstances and stress effective measures to attract and maintain their participation and to assure their learning achievement.

**Box 1.01 Street Children in Brazil**

For seven million children, the streets of Brazil's cities and towns are workplace and even home. The youngsters are everywhere: shining shoes, washing taxis, guarding parked cars, sorting through garbage for plastic bottles. But people would rather not acknowledge their existence and the authorities treat them as delinquents or misfits.

Of course, the problems of street children are not confined to Brazil: throughout Latin America's middle-income societies the number of children living on the street continues to increase. In fact, it is estimated that half the world's 30 million street children live in Latin America, but they appear wherever the world's cities bulge with new immigrants from rural areas.

Throughout Brazil, hundreds of community-based organizations sponsor programmes to reach out to street children and try to find ways of helping them earn a living and, at the same time, mature intellectually, socially, and emotionally. In 1981, UNICEF, the government of Brazil, and the National Child Welfare Foundation began the Brazil Street Children Project to pool the knowledge gained by these diverse programmes; they also hoped to increase public awareness of the children by broadening community involvement and making government responses more effective.

The 70 programs directly involved in the joint project have different philosophies, objectives and activities, but they share several features: each seeks to gain the child's confidence and to build a solid bond between child and programme, providing meals, income-generating activities, health care, and discussion groups. Some programmes also offer more formal training or employment. From their inception, the educational methods being used have placed the primary emphasis on the child as decision-maker.

A 1986 evaluation of the Brazil Street Children Project, using such indicators as social skills, career skills, personal growth, and moral values, found that programmes are most successful when they respond to the children's own needs, the first of which is for income. For example, the Salao do Encontro in the city of Betim, Minas Gerais, produces a complete line of home furnishings and employs more than 350 young people. The production process is labour-intensive and emphasizes the use of local resources. In addition to manufacturing the products, young people actually manage the enterprise. Salao do Encontro tries to build self-esteem among street children, believing that confidence creates a secure foundation for personal growth and development.

The nature and scope of the global challenges, and the effects of economic decline and fiscal constraints on investment in the social sectors, mean that a "business-as-usual" approach to basic education policies and programmes *simply will not work*. In the long-term, a failure to take decisive action to broaden the range, resources and suppliers of basic education opportunities would only deepen the present shortcomings and disparities, resulting in growing inequities in access to effective learning opportunities, increasing numbers of illiterate adults, and a growing population of youth and adults with inadequate knowledge and skills. Expanded forms of basic education for children, youth, and adults, and innovative modes of delivery and social mobilization to meet the broader scope implied by the term "basic learning" will be required, together with resources sufficient to reverse the declines that are occurring in some countries and to promote real improvements in all countries.

## D. The Role of Human Development in Addressing Global Challenges

Human development, at the level of individuals involves a process of learning and of applying what is learned to better the quality of life. With more learning, both individuals and groups are better able to derive sustenance from their environment, to participate effectively in society, to meet challenges, to

create new solutions, and to transform the world in a positive way. Learning is a catalyst for all development processes, whereas a lack of learning opportunities constrains the individual and societal ability to produce, or to benefit from, development.

After four decades of successes and failures in economic development, it has become abundantly clear that economic, socio-cultural, and environmental processes are closely linked; development or decay along one dimension profoundly affects the others. Each new development effort, whatever its focus, must recognize the complex interactions among all facets of life on this globe. This interactive nature of change requires a *multi-sectoral, long-term, and international* view of development in the design of programmes and policies. The pivotal determinant of the success of these programmes and policies will be whether a country's population possesses the appropriate basic skills and knowledge.

In many nations effective human development can help contain and even reverse the *current threat of economic stagnation or decline.* There is ample scientific evidence for the contributions of education to social and economic development. For instance, primary education is known to improve the productivity of workers in the factory and in the field and to provide the necessary skills for self-employment and entrepreneurship. Basic learning of all types can help families earn higher incomes and make better use of their earnings through informed consumption choices and improved household management.

At the macroeconomic level, an analysis of a sample of developing countries indicated that increases in literacy contribute to increases in investment and in output per worker. Literacy, as well as nutrition and income, was also found to correlate with increased life expectancy and reduced infant and maternal mortality. Overall differences in patterns of educational investment, especially at the basic levels, are significant in explaining differences in national rates of economic growth and in other development indicators.

Since the majority of workers in developing countries are engaged in subsistence agriculture, the effect of basic education on agricultural productivity has been an important policy issue and the subject of much research. One study by the World Bank – based on eighteen analyses carried out in thirteen developing nations – concluded that a minimum of four years of primary education increased farmer productivity by an average of 8.7 percent for all countries and 10 percent for those undergoing modernization and growth. The greater the demands on farmers to adapt to changing technologies, credit, and marketing systems, the higher will be the benefits to those possessing basic skills.

The effect of primary schooling on wage workers and entrepreneurs is indicated by the higher productivity of primary school graduates, as measured by adjusted earnings differentials. Both private and social rates of returns to primary schooling have been shown to be high relative to other forms of schooling: in one multinational comparison social rates averaged 27 percent for primary and 15–17 percent for secondary education, while private rates averaged 49 and 26 percent respectively. They are also high relative to the common return to capital investments which is about 10 percent. Primary schooling is critical for promoting the productivity of small entrepreneurs because they face additional decision-making demands and retain a larger share of the benefits of their own productivity. As in the case of agriculture, primary schooling increases the productivity of both wage earners and entrepreneurs even more in situations of rapid change and development.

*Economic disparities* are reinforced and reproduced over time by unequal access to basic education and unequal achievement in learning. More equitable access to effective basic learning opportunities will immediately begin to reduce the gap between the least educated and the most educated within a society. Equity in basic learning will also make access to further learning more equitable by assuring that individuals can be selected for these opportunities on the basis of actual achievement, rather than family or community wealth.

The reduction of learning disparities has both immediate and long-term effects. Some of these effects are linked to the importance of education for technological advancement, which has the capacity to affect profoundly the life circumstances of every person today. All countries need citizens capable of working with and through technology. Increasingly, the possession of knowledge and reasoning

**Box 1.02 Refugees: Displaced Children At Risk**

Children of refugees, displaced persons, and migrants often have limited or no access to basic education and literacy programmes, but such programmes are crucial to their adaptation and survival. The lives of these children have been disrupted by war, famine, and/or civil conflict. Forced to acculturate to new worlds often radically different from those from which they came, they require education to adjust to their new environment. Dinka children displaced by the war in southern Sudan, for example, must adapt from a rural nomadic lifestyle to the urban environment of Khartoum. An education for that displaced child may mean the difference between begging on the streets and productive employment.

Although often numbered among the poorest of the poor, the children of the refugees and displaced are a significant minority. The over 14 million officially recorded refugees are equivalent to the population of 42 of the least populated countries in the world or approximately one-quarter of the voting bloc in the United Nations. Estimates of displaced persons – not only officially recognized refugees, but also internal refugees, economic migrants, and asylum seekers – range from twenty to thirty million. Most live in the developing world in countries that can least afford the price of conflict. Women and children constitute the majority of these peoples and many displaced children have lived in camps or squatter settlements their entire lives.

Unfortunately, refugees and the displaced often fall between the cracks in the planning and implementation of educational programmes. Asylum governments may fear that refugee or displaced settlements harbor the "enemy" and are reluctant to invest in this human resource. Expecting that the refugees will eventually be repatriated, governments have little incentive to invest in another country's human capital.

Basic education bridges the gap between relief and development modes of assistance. Whether the refugees or displaced people eventually settle locally, repatriate, or resettle in a third country, an education will be useful for their eventual integration. An education can also assist in the process of creating a durable solution. Mozambican refugee children in Malawi, for example, are being offered a traditional Mozambican curriculum in Portuguese with the aim of preparing them to return to their homeland.

Educating the children of refugees and displaced peoples is ultimately in the best interest of governments and the international community. Having learned to adapt to a changing world, these children are characteristically highly motivated and open to new forms of knowledge. Since the Second World War, there have been more than fifty civil wars and the numbers of displaced and refugees throughout the world have steadily increased. The world cannot afford to let the victims of these conflicts suffer ignorance. They will be the ones who must learn to make peace and reconstruct anew.

ability defines individual and national efficacy. In a very real sense, to be deprived of basic education is to be deprived of the essential tools for modern living. Without the skills to participate in a literate, technological world and the knowledge to transform their environment, people will remain on the margins of society, and society itself will lose their vast potential contributions.

Meeting the basic learning needs of all has become of greater importance than ever, not only because of technological and other rapid changes in most societies, but also because of the increased global interdependency of nations in their cultural and economic activities. As a prerequisite for social, cultural, and economic development, education contributes to reducing disparities and building common understanding among people of different countries, socio-economic origins, and cultural identities. Effective education is a unique means to promote participation of all individuals in their local communities and in this global society.

**Box 1.03 The Highlander Center**

In 1980, toxic chemicals from the tannery in the town upstream from Larry Wilson's farm turned Yellow Creek black. Fish died, and some of Wilson's calves did, too, after drinking the polluted waters. Most people in the hills and hollows that border this Kentucky creek in the southeastern United States were afraid to speak out, certain that their lack of education and poverty were no match for the tannery's science and not as important as the town's prized industry.

Wilson rallied his neighbours to form the Yellow Creek Concerned Citizens: they conducted health surveys, lobbied the federal government to intervene, and finally forced the tannery to stop abusing the environment. The town, prompted by Yellow Creek Concerned Citizens, has built a new sewage treatment plant and the creek waters are clear again.

Aware that they needed organizing and research skills if the community was to survive, Wilson and other members of Yellow Creek Concerned Citizens attended educational workshops at the Highlander Resource and Education Center in New Market, Tennessee. For the past 10 years, Highlander's programmes have centred on the environmental effects of hazardous industries, mainly as a reflection of the concerns of the community groups it serves.

Highlander works in Southern Appalachia and the rural areas of the deep South – a third world in which infant mortality rates are higher and literacy lower than anywhere else in North America. Highlander's educational process builds on the culture shared by group members: oral history, songs, drama, dance, to build confidence and determination. Its educational programmes help local groups understand the problems they face, learn from others who dealt with similar problems, experiment with new ideas, and build organizations that will encourage responsible development.

Although content varies according to the groups being served, the format is consistent: residential workshops of from two days to eight weeks, involving between 15 and 40 participants from diverse communities but sharing a common concern. That was the way Highlander operated in the 1950s and early 1960s, when it became known as the educational centre of the U.S. civil rights movement. It is used today in Highlander's Southern Appalachian and Leadership Training; SALT is the most successful leadership training programme in the South, a series of six weekend workshops that cover such subjects as creating learning plans, communication skills, community analysis and research, problem definition, and project design. Although Highlander does not grade seminar participants, one criterion of success is whether they carry out decisions made in the workshops.

*Marginalized populations* depend on their knowledge and problem-solving skills to deal with the hardships created by war, civil strife, and crime, as well as discrimination. Basic education is one means of attacking the root causes of these conditions (by promoting equitable development) and, at the same time, of providing immediate knowledge and skills for dealing with their effects. Increasing the level of basic learning helps alleviate conditions of disadvantage and thus contributes to reduction of social disparity.

Marginalized populations need basic education to prepare them for effective migration, social and occupational mobility, access to new information and markets, and adaptation to new environments. Meeting the basic learning needs of these groups will not solve their problems, but it must be a part of the solution. In particular, nonconventional forms of basic education are needed for those whose lives have been disrupted by forces beyond their control. These problems affect all countries: the growing levels of functional illiteracy in the industrialized economies show that they too are not immune to such problems.

To combat *environmental degradation*, people must not only understand the effect of their actions on the environment but also accept responsibility for them. They must not shift the costs of their actions to people in other geographical areas or to future generations. Increased basic knowledge helps

**Box 1.04 Population Education**

By the mid-1980s, over 80 countries included population education in their schools. Population education contributes to the relevance and quality of education by:

- developing an awareness and understanding of population issues, thereby giving learners a degree of control over the shape of their future;
- introducing new teaching/learning methodologies and topics, i.e. population issues, which relate directly to the daily lives, concerns and futures of learners (both at personal and societal levels); and
- encouraging the development of analytical skills, using population issues as a point of reference, to enable learners to adapt to a changing world.

Population education also has an important role to play in facilitating the understanding of women's issues and fostering the improvement of the situation of women. Through role play, games, elementary research and other techniques, negative stereotypes and myths can be exposed and values changed, especially with young learners. This is one of the most important concepts which can be dealt with through population education at the primary school level.

Another concept which is important for young learners to understand is that decisions result in action and that individuals are responsible for their actions. Even very young children should learn that it is possible, and desirable, for babies to be born as the result of a decision, in an atmosphere of love and commitment. It is very important that young children learn that they can have a degree of control over some aspects of their lives, and that childbearing is one of them.

Pre-adolescent learners benefit from population education that helps develop their self-esteem, an important factor in academic success, retention in school, and the prevention of adolescent pregnancy.

Adults and out-of-school youth require understanding of the immediate relevance of population issues to their daily lives. These learners are already at reproductive age and need sufficient information to enable them to control their own fertility and to make other population decisions such as those relating to migration. Meeting their learning needs adequately requires an integrated approach so that young adults, especially couples about to be married, will receive appropriate information about family planning methods applied in their community.

to inform individuals of the real costs of environmental damage and to promote social acceptance of regulations to restrict environmentally damaging acts and measures to promote ecologically sound development.

The replenishment of ecologically imperiled lands can be set in motion by tapping the traditional environmental knowledge of the land's inhabitants. People with local knowledge of food production under harsh conditions, medicinal practices, literary and artistic forms, and local institutions and community processes, are a rich cultural resource. To bring this precious knowledge to bear on contemporary problems of the environment, the people who possess it must be equipped with the basic knowledge and skills that will enable them to function effectively in their societies.

Education, particularly of girls and women, does a great deal to control *rapid population growth* by promoting collective health and well-being. Educated women and men can make informed choices about when to have children and are better able to maintain their own and their children's health. This benefits the society by curbing excessive population growth and improving the overall health of the population. Research has demonstrated that women's educational attainment is strongly related to reduced rates of maternal and infant mortality, and to improved nutrition in the family.

The process by which basic learning affects population growth is complex and varies among countries. Normally it involves several interrelated factors, such as better understanding of family planning options, increased re-

**Box 1.05 Environmental Education: The Thai Magic Eyes Concept**

There is mounting concern that the pace of environmental destruction is advancing so swiftly that there is not enough time to wait for the next generation to be environmentally educated. Fortunately, reaching children effectively can be a means to reach adults, thereby changing the behavior of two generations at once.

The Thai Environmental and Community Development Association (TECDA) a non-governmental organization (NGO), began five years ago with the aim of educating the people to be environmentally aware. It was hoped that awareness would lead to action – initially in one's own domain, and then to participation in developing the community and the country as a whole. The ultimate aim was to develop a respect for, and attachment to, one's environment, so much so that the individual would no longer quietly allow others to pollute and would encourage others to conserve the environment. It was important to present complex environmental problems simply and to show how they affected individuals.

TECDA's basic mass education began with the "MAGIC EYES" HELP KEEP THAILAND CLEAN CAMPAIGN: a series of cartoon advertisements on television directed at children – persuading them to put rubbish in its proper place, and encouraging them to "police" adults and spur them to do the right thing with the words, "AH-AH! DON'T LITTER! MAGIC EYES SEE YOU." From this anti-litter campaign TECDA has expanded to the problems of water pollution and forest destruction, for example, the Love Chao Phya River clean-up programme which began in January, 1990.

TECDA's unique and joyful approach to educating Thais to improve local environmental conditions has been tremendously successful. Annually, the number of people who participated in TECDA's various programmes – including school children, government officials, market vendors, private company employees, and other community residents – grew from 15,000 in 1984 to over 400,000 in 1988. A public sector advertising survey found that 89 percent of those surveyed said the MAGIC EYES campaign contributed "quite a lot" to society.

sources, changes in attitudes, and reduced infant mortality. Where population growth remains a serious barrier to real economic growth, education will offer a significant means of dealing with the problem because of its effects on fertility.

### E. Defining Basic Learning Needs

From the preceding discussion of human development and its potential effects, it is possible to identify basic learning needs in general terms along both *personal* and *societal* dimensions. These needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the *basic learning content* (such as knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning. The scope of basic learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures, and inevitably, changes with the passage of time.

The satisfaction of these needs empowers individuals in any society and confers upon them a responsibility to respect and build upon their collective cultural, linguistic and spiritual heritage, to promote the education of others, to further the cause of social justice, to achieve environmental protection, to be tolerant towards social, political and religious systems which differ from their own, ensuring that commonly accepted humanistic values and human rights are upheld, and to work for international peace and solidarity in an interdependent world.

Basic education facilitates the ability to meet other basic needs – adequate nutrition, shelter and clothing, and access to health services and clean water. All of these basic human

**Box 1.06 Global Awareness: The Emergence of Global and Development Education**

Educators in both the South and the North have begun to recognize the need for a more global perspective in education. Development education and global education programmes help students learn a global perspective, including a recognition and avoidance of cultural biases and tolerance for ethnic and national diversities. Such programmes seek to link global challenges and realities, including such issues as the environment, peace and security, international debt, poverty alleviation, etc., with all specific content areas of basic education.

In Canada the Alberta Global Education project, operated by the Alberta Teachers' Association, with financial assistance from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the Alberta Education, helps teachers to identify and locate curriculum opportunities and specific techniques that will cultivate their students' abilities to deal with global issues. British Columbia recently launched a new programme called the "Pacific Rim Education Initiative." It is part of a $12 million programme that will provide $375,000 for school programmes that are related to the Asia Pacific area and $3 million to school districts for study visits to Asia Pacific countries.

In the United States, development education has also spread rapidly primarily as a result of non-governmental agencies. For example, Foster Parents Plan, an international NGO headquartered in Rhode Island, is attempting to introduce different ways of life to US school children through a traveling art exhibit drawn by children from developing countries and depicting their daily lives.

Global and Development Education are emerging in developing countries as well. In Senegal, groups of women living outside of Dakar are meeting regularly to learn about women in other parts of the world. They watch a simple video tape produced in another part of the world and hear women from distant nations tell how they spend their day. The Senegalese groups are also videotaping their own experiences and daily life stories to send to the United States and other countries so that others may learn about them. The programme is part of a video exchange network that is being developed by the US-based Overseas Education Fund (OEF) International.

In the Philippines, an attempt is being made through teachers' education and the University of the Philippines to develop new curriculum materials that reflect a broader array of global issues, particularly those that affect Philippine society. The programme, when completed, will be used in both formal and nonformal education. As a result, both governmental and non-governmental agencies are linking together to promote and utilize the new materials and techniques.

needs are interdependent, but basic education promotes accomplishment of, and increases the individual benefits from, the satisfaction of other needs.

The possession of basic learning also is a prerequisite and a complement to other sources of social and economic development. It can help resolve the problems of economic decline, widening economic disparities, dislocation and disadvantage, environmental degradation, and excessive population growth. Another and no less fundamental aim of educational development is the transmission and enrichment of common cultural and moral values. It is in these values that the individual and society find their identity and worth. Moreover, sound basic education is fundamental to the strengthening of higher levels of education and of scientific and technological literacy and capacity and thus to self-reliant development.

Basic education is more than an end in itself. It is the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training.

**Box 1.07 Korea: Providing Primary Education for All**

Historically, Korea illustrates a country whose educational policies, particularly in the finance area evolved in support of their rapid industrialization. Korea was able to invest a large proportion of its GNP in education because of its commitment to, and broad and flexible approach to, educational finance. Including all sources of finance, the percentage of GNP going to education was 8.8 percent in 1966 and rose to 9.7 percent in 1970. About 71 percent of educational expenses were paid for by students and their parents. These were used for construction and operation of schools, as well as for out-of-school household expenses on books, school supplies, transportation, extracurricular activities and room/board. In the mid-1960s, out-of-school expenses accounted for 80 percent of household educational expenditures, close to one-half of which were for primary education. A large share of these expenditures went for the purchase of textbooks at the compulsory education level since only a quarter of the students got them for free.

The central government concentrated expenditure on primary education. By allocating three-fourths of its national public education budget to compulsory education and relying on private schools and parents' willingness to pay for secondary and tertiary education, Korea achieved primary education for all, while at the same time satisfying the strong and growing demand for post-primary education. In 1965 public schools accounted for 99 percent of primary enrollment, but they served only 42.5 and 27.4 percent of enrollment at the academic secondary and tertiary levels of education, respectively.

Korea also made use of local institutions in the finance and provision of primary education. As early as 1949, Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) played an important role in the finance of primary education. Despite the ambitions of the Education Law, the central government could provide only 15 percent of the revenues needed to finance primary education. Hence, the PTAs, which were originally organized to supplement teacher salaries and to increase parental involvement in school decision-making, provided 75 percent of the funds for local schools, with local governments contributing another 10 percent. In the sixties, local sources provided between 20 and 25 percent of the total amount of local education expenditure at the primary level. In 1970, PTAs were reorganized as the "Yuksonghoe" (voluntary parent-teacher association) with the same objectives as before. With the reorganization, the Yuksonghoe fees amounted to 28 percent of the public budget for compulsory education in 1974.

Finally, the central government provided grants to local schools for compulsory education, amounting to 73 percent of total local government expenditures in 1970. Conscious of the inequality among communities, the national government has attempted since 1982 to equalize public expenditure among primary school districts across the country by means of formulas that distribute national funds on the basis of local need and ability to pay.

## F. New Opportunities for Human Development

As the range and gravity of problems facing the world's nations have grown, so too has awareness of the need to emphasize human development on global and national agendas. From settings as diverse as the 1987 Asian Forum of Parliamentarians on Population and Development, the 1988 Cartagena meeting of Latin American Ministers of State, the 1988 North-South Roundtable in Amman, the ongoing work of the South Commission, and numerous United Nations meetings, a general understanding has emerged: Real development is human development, and long-term economic growth and social well-being rest on the quality of life of every woman and man.

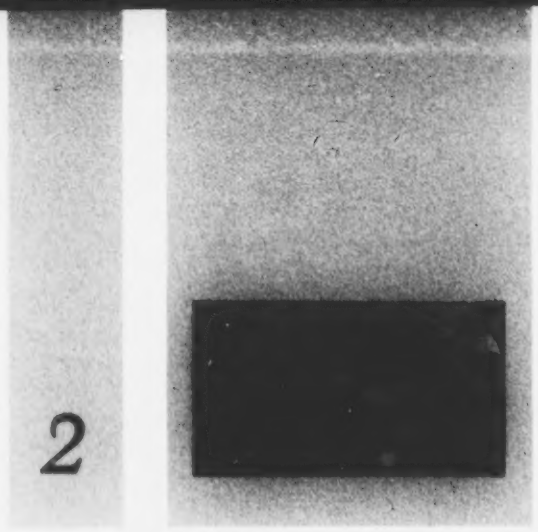
Confidence in this view has grown as countries have accumulated experience in providing basic education. Many countries have

made remarkable societal improvements as a result of their sustained investment in basic learning opportunities. The experience of Europe and North America, and more recently of Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore, strongly support the conclusion that basic education is a necessary part of an equitable and efficient foundation for national development.

Despite the real financial constraints evident in the 1980s, some countries have had striking success in fostering a better quality of life for all. Major global initiatives, such as those related to access to clean water and sanitation, primary health care, immunization, and child survival, have each saved millions of lives and enhanced the well-being of hundreds of millions of people. Since the 1970s, an estimated 1.1 billion people have benefited from improved water supply and sanitation facilities, and in four low-income African countries the percentage of the population with access to clean water doubled from 1980 to 1985. Worldwide, over 60 percent of all children are now vaccinated against the six major diseases that kill young people, and the goal of universal immunization seems near. This is an astonishing improvement over 1974 when only 5 percent of the babies born in the developing world received these vaccinations. One child survival technique alone, oral rehydration therapy, saves as many as a million infants' lives a year.

These successes required major initiatives, concerted action, and the formation of development alliances. Equally indispensable was the use of new communication technologies to disseminate the knowledge and skills needed to deal with the problems of water, sanitation, and health. In sum, these examples are dramatic proof that where there is a willingness and a commitment, gains in human development can be attained, even within the financial and other constraints of the current global challenges.

Recently, the development literature has focussed more on constraints than on opportunities. A review of the state of basic learning in the world will reveal, however, that these constraints are not the absolute barriers to progress that many have assumed; with strong public and private commitments, they can be overcome. Constraints and opportunities are part of a complex whole where demographic, cultural, socio-political, technical, economic, environmental, and strictly educational factors are interrelated in a circular pattern of causes and effects. Each nation must be viewed individually: its background characteristics, financial capacity, and past educational efforts combine to determine the ultimate impact of learning achievement on its population. Whatever the constraints, a societal *willingness* and *effort* can minimize the inhibiting effects of these constraints and allow each country to exploit the unprecedented global opportunity to meet its current challenges.



# 2

# *The Context and Effects of Basic Learning in the World*

Since human development determines how well individuals and nations will meet the current global challenges, it is important to understand the present context and effects of basic learning in the world. This chapter assesses how basic learning needs are now being met, how national efforts have evolved in recent decades, and what the current opportunities are for improving the quantity, effectiveness, and equity of education.

## A. Basic Education Data

National data sets on the state of basic learning have four significant limitations. *First*, data are more commonly available for the formal education system and are incomplete to nonexistent for the wide range of out-of-school programmes for youth and adults. *Second*, the data predominantly include learning inputs, sometimes outputs, but rarely indicators of the learning process. *Third*, the data are highly aggregated and do not always reflect the internal diversity of nations, systems, or even institutions. And *fourth*, the data rarely reveal qualitative dimensions of the quantitative measures.

Given these data limitations, it should be recognized that more is known about basic learning than can be validated with available data and techniques. Thus, when data or statistical results appear illogical or even counterintuitive, one should be prepared to reexamine the situation carefully before abandoning one's original conception of the learning relationships. In the discussions that follow, the aggregate data currently available on primary and adult education will be supplemented with case studies, country-specific examples, and logical inferences.

## B. Indicators of the Context and Effects of Basic Education

It is useful and appropriate to organize the national data on basic education around five concepts:

- The economic and demographic *background* of the nation
- The specific financial characteristics that constrain or facilitate the nation's *capacity* to support social services (including basic education)
- The actual *effort* being made (funds expended, resources used, or programmes operated) to support basic education activities
- The *direct effects* of these efforts as measured by access to educational services,

continuing participation of students, and graduation (pupil achievement data are not generally available)

- The *social impacts* of basic education activities as measured by indicators of literacy, health, nutrition, fertility, and income equality.

There are no simple cause-and-effect relationships between the determinants and results of basic education; rather, the relationship is interactive. Education facilitates development and development further facilitates future education activities. Thus, the current indicators of the effects of basic education become part of the general background and financial determinants of a nation's future capacity to progress toward meeting the basic learning needs of all.

Tables 1 to 6 in Annex 1 (Basic Data) provide selected comparable statistics most recently available for each nation. The countries are listed in the order of their per capita gross national product (GNP). The per capita GNP figure is presented not as an acceptable indicator of social or even economic development but only as a basis for organizing the data. Per capita GNP is a useful indicator of a nation's total measured economic production and thus of the economic resources *potentially available* to meet social needs. Therefore, when per capita GNP is compared with other national characteristics, other measures of financial capacity, and indicators of educational effort and its direct and social effects, the analysis of the state of basic education is structured in a logical and effective form.

With per capita GNP in 1987 (in U.S. dollars) as a standard, the nations are divided into three categories: the low-income economies (less than $480 per capita GNP), the middle-income economies ($481 to $5,999), and the industrial market economies ($6,000 and above). The low- and middle-income economies are categorized as developing economies and the middle-income category itself is divisible into lower-middle-income economies ($481 to $2,000) and upper-middle-income economies ($2,001 to $5,999). The "other economies" category represents those nations for which data are unavailable for most of the indicators used in the analysis. The data in the main tables are supplemented elsewhere by other categorizations (e.g., geographic regions) and variables (for example, gross domestic product, rather than GNP, is used for some analyses[1]).

*(i) Background characteristics*

A review of the background characteristics of the world's nations reveals a startling *convergence of disadvantage*. The lowest-income economies not only are poor but also suffer from a variety of other developmental disadvantages. Their populations are the least educated, are increasing in number at the most rapid rates, are the most dependent on subsistence agriculture, have the least access to clean drinking water and health services, and most often lack the communication benefits of radio and television. This convergence of disadvantage has resulted in only twelve of the thirty-seven lowest-income nations (for which data are available) reporting positive growth rates during the 1980-87 period. However, the more positive growth forecasts for 1987-1995 found in Table 2 reinforce the belief that the present period offers a special opportunity for dealing with the world's basic learning needs.

During the 1970s it became conventional to refer to the world's poorest nations as "developing" rather than underdeveloped. However, over the last decade, the term "developing" became a *misnomer* for the majority of the poorest nations. The economic gap between the advantaged and disadvantaged nations widened not simply because the poorer countries were growing at a slower rate but because some were not growing at all in per capita terms and other economies were actually contracting. The joint effects of economic stagnation and continued high population growth made the already severe situation of these nations even worse.

The problem of nondevelopment has not been confined to the low-income economies. It also appeared among the lower-middle-income countries where only fifteen of the thirty-four nations report positive per capita GNP growth rates for 1980-87. Only seven of these countries have reduced their annual population growth rates to below 2 percent

[1] Refer to Technical Notes for definitions and information on data sources, comparability and interpretations.

**Table 2 Growth of Real GDP**

| | 1973-80 | | 1980-87 | | 1987-95 Base | | 1987-95 High | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Country Group* | *GDP* | *GDP per capita* | *GDP* | *GDP per capita* | *GDP* | *GDP per capita* | *GDP* | *GDP per capita* |
| Industrial countries | 2.8 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 3.0 | 2.6 |
| Developing countries | 5.4 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 3.6 |
| Low-income countries | 4.6 | 2.5 | 7.4 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 3.5 | 6.5 | 4.6 |
| Middle-income countries | 5.7 | 3.2 | 2.4 | 0.1 | 3.6 | 1.5 | 5.1 | 3.0 |
| Oil exporters | 5.9 | 3.2 | 1.0 | (0.6) | 2.7 | 0.2 | 3.7 | 1.3 |
| Exporters of manufactures | 6.0 | 4.0 | 6.3 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 3.4 | 6.5 | 4.9 |
| Highly indebted countries | 5.4 | 2.9 | 1.1 | (1.3) | 3.2 | 1.0 | 3.9 | 2.5 |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 5.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 | (2.9) | 3.2 | 0.0 | 3.9 | 0.7 |

Notes: GDP denotes average annual growth of real GDP, 1973 to 1995.
GDP per capita denotes average annual growth of real GDP per capita, 1973 to 1995.
All growth rates for developing countries are based on a sample of ninety countries.

Source: The World Bank.

while eight have rates still above 3 percent; thus, the pressure in these countries to promote economic growth sufficient to offset population increases is intense. Table 3 indicates how small differences in the rate of annual population growth can result in significant differences in the absolute growth of population.

In the upper-middle-income and industrial market economies the situation has differed dramatically from that described above. Only seven of the former and four of the latter had negative growth rates for per capita GNP during 1980-87. In these economies, population growth rates are consistently lower, access to safe drinking water and health services is high, and possession of radios and televisions is common. Although this international pattern blurs the differences that exist within all countries in the ability of disadvantaged groups to benefit from economic prosperity, they do make it abundantly clear that the condition of disadvantaged nations has worsened in both a relative and an absolute sense over the most recent decade.

**Table 3 Population Increase and Growth Rates**

| *Population Growth Rate (%)* | *Years for Population to Double* |
|---|---|
| 1.8 | 40 |
| 2.0 | 36 |
| 2.4 | 30 |
| 3.0 | 24 |
| 3.4 | 21 |

Development problems are not just a phenomenon of the least developed economies, however. For the most prosperous nations, the major issue has been the continued *marginalization* of their disadvantaged populations. Aggregate prosperity does not automatically generate benefits for these groups. Thus, programmes specifically directed to the needs of these groups are required if gains in equity are to parallel aggregate growth. In the middle-income countries, a major issue is the potential for economic *stagnation*. As countries become less able to maintain real per capita growth, they may find it more difficult to maintain the gains in social development of the last thirty years. These countries need to renew growth, beyond

that fueled by inflation and required to offset population increases, to maintain and improve the social condition of all, especially the most disadvantaged. The major aggregate issue in the low-income economies is economic *decline*. Many of these nations already are losing the battle to keep up with inflation, and some cannot maintain positive growth rates even in the aggregate, let alone in per capita measures. In these societies, both marginal and central population groups suffer, although marginal groups to a greater degree. In such conditions, the tendency is for the privileged minority to sustain itself while increasing numbers of the population become economically disadvantaged and face reduced access to basic social services.

Change is occurring within the three categories of economies. Some of the more prosperous countries are threatened by economic stagnation; within the middle-income economies, stagnation is moving toward decline for some; and within the low-income economies, decline is accelerating for the most disadvantaged countries. The reversal of these trends will not solve all of the economic and social problems, but it will begin the process of reclaiming the positive effects of development. Marginalization, stagnation, and decline are simply degrees of failure in the ability of nations to produce economic growth and to share it equitably among their populations.

*(ii) Financial capacity*

A nation's specific economic conditions will either facilitate or constrain its financial ability to support social investment. Among these specific conditions are the role of government in the economy, the relative status of the agriculture sector, the structure of international trade, the balance of international payments, the debt burden, and the receipt of development assistance. With the exception of the last condition, the low- and lower-middle-income economies again present a pattern of disadvantage.

The expansion of public sector involvement is not inherently a constraint on development. In fact, *average* levels of reported government expenditure as a percentage of gross domestic product are higher in the industrial market economies than in the developing economies (approximately 17 percent to 13 percent – see Chart 2A), and there does not appear to be a systematic relationship between government involvement in the economy and national growth (see Chart 2B).

The least developed nations are expected to continue to depend on agriculture as a major source of aggregate employment and growth in the near future. They also will continue to depend on commodity exports and imports of manufactured goods. Supply and demand conditions in these two categories of trade often leave the developing nations in a less favourable market position than the more developed nations. Without improvement in their terms of trade, developing countries will operate under an ongoing disadvantage in attempting to promote aggregate growth by increasing foreign trade.

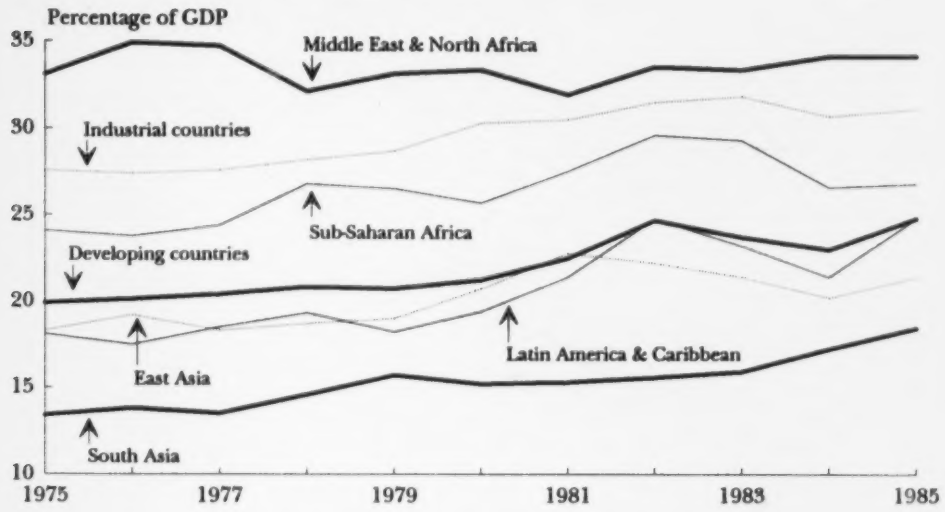
In part, the current account balances (the net amount of exports minus imports and of private and governmental unrequited transfers) for 1987 reflect these different trade structures. All but three of the low-income economies reported a negative balance for 1987; only nine of thirty-four lower-middle-income economies had a positive balance, whereas five of sixteen upper-middle-income and ten of twenty-five industrial economies had positive balances (see Chart 3).

Because of the debt incurred by developing nations in the 1970s, their access to foreign financing became so limited that current account balances were reduced dramatically after 1982. This reduction forced the seventeen most highly indebted nations to increase their trade surplus from $2 billion in 1982 to an annual average of $32 billion during 1983–87. This surplus resulted from lower relative imports, reduced investment, and constrained per capita consumption. These adjustments were doubly damaging because reduced consumption lowered economic welfare immediately while reduced investment threatened the long-term potential for growth.

The debt burden problem (indicated by debt service as a percentage of exports) is a general constraint on development in all three categories of developing nations. Twenty-four of thirty-four low-income economies reported debt service levels for 1987 above 10 percent of exports, and nine of these had ratios above 25 percent. For the lower-middle-income economies, only two of thirty reported debt

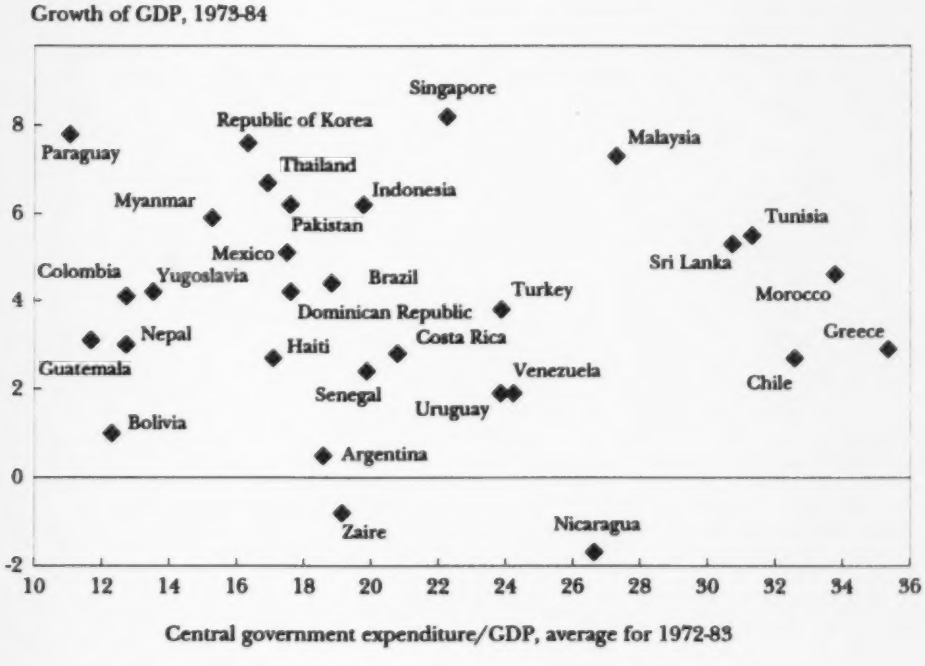
**Chart 2 Government Expenditure and Growth in GDP**

**A. Central government spending as a share of GDP by region, 1975 to 1985**




Note: Figures represent group averages weighted by GDP. Because of the lack of comparable data, China, Japan, Nigeria and several relatively small countries are excluded from the samples in this figure.

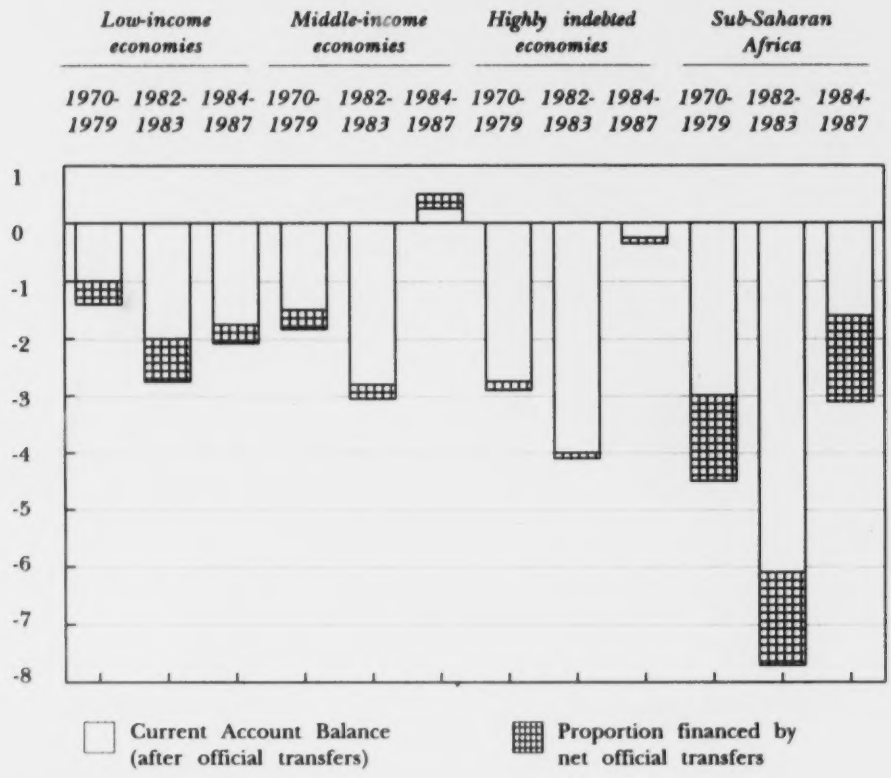
**B. Relation between central government expenditure as a share of GDP and the growth of GDP in developing countries**
(percent)




Central government expenditure/GDP, average for 1972-83

Source: The World Bank.

**Chart 3: External Balances of Developing Countries**




Source: The World Bank

service ratios of less than 10 percent, and thirteen exceeded 25 percent. For upper-middle-income nations, only two countries (Panama and Gabon) had a debt service ratio below 10 percent, and nine of the twelve reporting nations had ratios above 25 percent. For the poorest nations these debt burdens aggravate the existing patterns of stagnation and decline. For the middle-income nations the debt burden is slowing – in some cases reversing – the progress that once was being made in national development.

The long-term debt of developing countries has continued to increase since 1982; for the highly indebted countries, it rose from $390 billion in 1982 to $485 billion at the end of 1987. This increase in debt paralleled deterioration of creditworthiness through 1986, but since then conditions have been more stable and in some cases have improved. The compression of imports (for example, from 1980 to 1986, Latin America shifted from a $2 billion deficit to a $13 billion surplus in trade with the United States) brought on by the debt burden reduces exports from the developed nations and further jeopardizes global economic growth.

The debt service problem is linked to the potential for social investment spending, but only indirectly. As a greater share of national

**Box 2.01 Ghana: Improvement under Austerity**

Until the mid-1970s, Ghana had one of the most developed and effective educational systems in Western Africa: the system consisted of six years of primary, four years of middle, and seven years of secondary education. However, the economic decline that began the 1970s caused educational expenditures to fall from 6.4 percent of GDP in 1976 to 1.7 percent in 1985. During this period the urban bias of the formal system was reinforced, school enrollments stagnated or declined, adult illiteracy rates increased, teacher attrition became a critical problem, pedagogical materials became scarce, and planning degenerated into solely a form of crisis management.

The Provisional National Defence Council introduced an Economic Recovery Program (ERP) that began in 1983. The goals of the ERP were to support exports and domestic production, to restore fiscal and monetary discipline, to rehabilitate the economic and social infrastructure and the country's productive base, and to encourage private investment. The second phase of the ERP (1986-88) placed greater emphasis on the social sectors, including education, and attempted to improve allocation of operational and maintenance expenditures and increase the effectiveness of public investment planning.

In 1987 an education sector reform program was announced to:

- expand access to primary education, especially in low enrollment areas;
- improve educational quality, efficiency, and relevance;
- make financing of education more efficient and equitable; and
- strengthen system planning and administration.

The reform was supported by a World Bank sector adjustment credit as well as by grants from UNDP, Switzerland, Great Britain, Norway and Canada, and concessional loans from the OPEC Fund.

While the ultimate success of the reform will not be certain for several years, the immediate goals of increased access, maintaining education's share of the budget, and decreasing unit costs have been realized. The reform has emphasized improving pedagogical efficiency (especially in the Junior Secondary School (JSS) curriculum which covers grades 7-9 in Ghana's new 12-year pre-tertiary system), promoting cost savings and cost recovery, encouraging community involvement, and rationalizing university operations. One result is that new enrollments in 1989 increased by 11.8 percent (compared to a plan goal of only 5 percent), while education's share of the budget has been kept at the pre-reform level of 3 percent of GDP.

The initial success of the Ghanian educational reform appears attributable to five key factors:

1. A core group of professionals (domestic and international) are committed to the reform;
2. International aid efforts have been well-coordinated;
3. The reform was implemented nationwide in a short period of time;
4. The reform standardized the JSS as the national form of middle school, thus avoiding the stigmatization that occurred in the previous two-track system; and
5. Managers of the reform have heeded the constraints imposed by the present level of management capacity.

The Ghanian experience indicates how a properly structured education sector adjustment policy can promote educational improvement within the inherent constraints of an economic sector reform program.

resources must be used to service foreign debt, fewer funds are available for all investment and consumption activities. It does appear, however, that under heavy debt burdens, some governments tend to emphasize import substitution activities and the immediately productive sectors (to generate more funds in the short run) at the expense of social investments. Debt conditions also precipitate structural adjustments and reforms that often have an impact on expenditures within the social sectors.

**Box 2.02 Private Primary Schools Enroll One out of Eight Pupils**

A recent Unesco survey of 140 countries and territories representing 77 percent of the world's primary school enrolment found that over 29 million children were enrolled in private primary schools in 1985, i.e. nearly 12 percent of the combined total (public + private) enrolments in the 112 countries reporting some private education. This percentage is nearly the same for developing and industrialized countries.

By major region, private primary enrolment accounted for 12.8 percent of total enrolment in Africa, 9.1 percent in Asia, 17.6 percent in Europe, 10.2 percent in North America, 14.1 percent in South America, and 24.1 percent in Oceania. Compared to the situation in 1975, the share of private enrolments decreased from 12.4 percent to 11.7 percent of the aggregate world total, but increased by two percentage points in Europe and Oceania, and slightly in South America.

But what is a *private school*? According to the international definition used in UNESCO questionnaires, a private school is a school not operated by a public authority, whether or not the school receives financial support from such authority. Thus, management is the decisive criterion for international statistical purposes. In other cases, however, other criteria may be used: for example, the ownership of a school, or its source of income. The stated purpose of a school and the clientele it serves may also indicate its nonpublic character, as in the case of religious and ethnic schools which generally aim to maintain a particular subculture. Each of these criteria is useful, but difficult to apply universally to distinguish private from public schools, because of local variations. Relatively few private schools operate without some financial support and administrative oversight by the public authorities; public schools in many countries receive partial support from fees and other nonpublic sources, and some also cater to certain subcultures.

Another categorization of primary schools may be helpful:

- community schools that take all children in a given locality;
- schools that maintain a subculture (religious or ethnic);
- reform or free schools that apply a particular pedagogical or social philosophy;
- elite (academic or social) schools;
- private venture schools offering education or training that is in short supply.

Most public schools would fit into the first category, whereas most private schools would fit into one or more of the other four.

Where strong subcultures are embedded in society, private schools are defended as expressions of religious, cultural and ethnic diversity. Such private schools are intended to socialize children into the beliefs, values and traditions of the sponsoring group. This view contrasts with the widespread expectation that the public school, common to all children in a locality, promotes social cohesion, understanding and tolerance among diverse groups and social strata.

*(iii) Educational effort*

Despite the general economic and financial conditions described above, many nations have made impressive attempts to maintain their financial commitment to basic education. The pattern suggests that a *willingness* to support the meeting of basic learning needs is a necessary condition to offset the most harmful effects of financial restraints. Between 1980 and 1987, fourteen of the twenty-two low-income countries reporting expenditure data maintained or increased total education expenditure as a percentage of GNP. Fifteen of the twenty-four lower-middle-income countries and fourteen of the sixteen upper-middle-income countries did the same. A similar pattern exists for education as a percentage of total government expenditure. Some countries, despite their economic difficulties, have made the commitment to reallocate government expenditures in favour of, rather than

away from, education. An appropriate inference from this data is that although choices concerning educational expenditures are constrained, *it is still within a country's own ability to choose education.*

A large number of countries (especially in the poorest categories) have maintained or increased the share of primary education in the total education budget between 1980 and 1987. More than half of the low-income and lower-middle income nations reporting comparable data have managed to increase primary education's share in their education budgets. However, in two-thirds of these countries this increase was coupled with a decline in the per pupil expenditure (in current dollars) during the same period, due to increasing enrolments. On the other hand, in the upper-middle-income economies, and notably in Latin America, primary education's share in some countries' education budgets has declined because of the relative expansion of secondary and tertiary education. Because total resources for education have increased in many of these nations, the relative decline of primary education's share does not automatically imply a decline in per pupil expenditures on primary education. Even with increasing primary school populations, five of the six countries in this category that experienced a decline in primary education's share, managed to increase their per pupil expenditure between 1980 and 1987.

As a further indication of education efforts, a large majority of countries continued to expand enrolment during the 1975-85 decade, and some even reduced teacher-pupil ratios. Because of governmental financial constraints and parental choice, many countries have an increased proportion of their primary school pupils in private schools. Even though many private schools receive some form of direct or indirect government subsidy (and almost all benefit from teachers prepared in public institutions), the expansion of private schools can allow governments to target a portion of their expenditures more directly on the needs of the disadvantaged; for example, through subsidy formulas based on community income. There always is the danger that the private system will evolve into an elite alternative with access determined by family income alone, or that public schools will be comparatively neglected. However, appropriate planning can avert these effects by assuring a recognition of the inevitable interdependency of the two sectors.

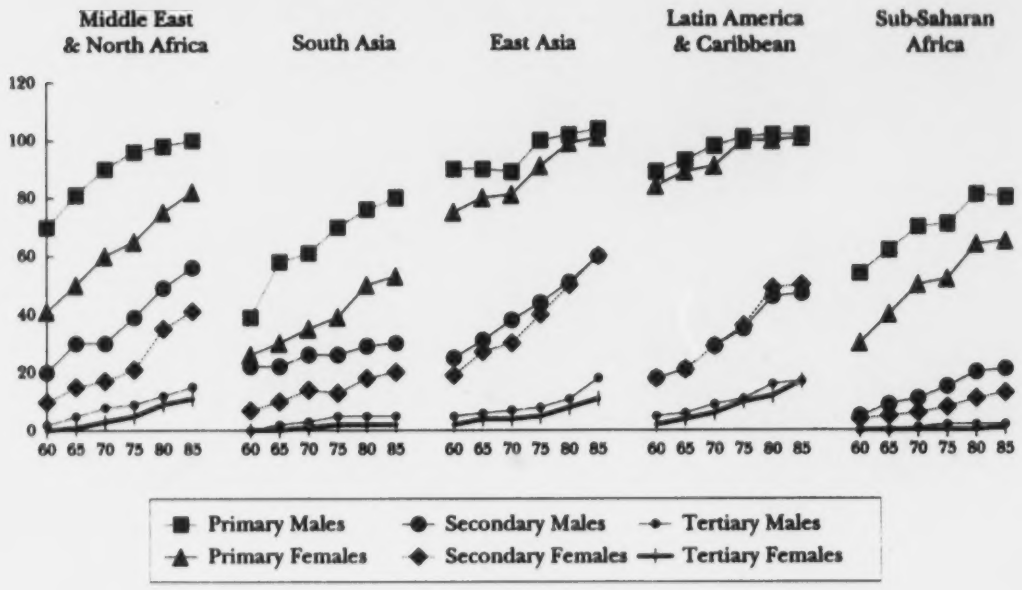
The development of private education has been more dramatic in the industrial economies than among the developing economies. Only seven of twenty-four low-income countries showed an increase in the proportion of pupils in private primary education, while twenty-three of forty-nine middle-income countries, and fourteen of twenty industrial market economies did so. One inference is that the more advantaged nations are benefitting from the mobilization of nongovernment resources for primary education, while in low-income countries, whose public budgets are already burdened in other ways, governments continue to assume the highest proportion of fiscal responsibility for educational services. Obviously, private resources in low-income nations also are constrained, but nongovernment alternatives can assist in financing even in the poorest nations. For example, Haiti has more than half its primary students in private schools, and there are initiatives to mobilize family and community resources for basic education throughout sub-Saharan Africa.

Parallel efforts (by public, religious, and nongovernment organizations) to provide out-of-school basic education for children are harder to document in a comparable quantified manner. Despite difficult economic conditions, however, many nations have maintained and some have expanded their out-of-school programmes equivalent to formal primary education. These often provide instruction with the same content as that of primary schools and also often teach basic knowledge and skills to youth and adults. Better documentation of such programmes and their participants, costs, and results will be required for the future planning of basic education.

*(iv) Educational effects*

Ideally, a nation would want to know how educational efforts affect school processes, and the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour. In reality, data are available only to indicate access to schooling, continuing participation, graduation, and further

**Chart 4: Gross Enrolment Ratios by Regions (1960-85)**




Source: UNESCO.

learning attainment. The degree to which these indicators are adequate proxies for the hoped-for effects of basic education activities will vary among nations, systems, and institutions.

The gross and net enrolment ratios (the common measures of access) reveal once again the differences among nations and among the economic categories of nations in their priorities for and efforts in meeting basic learning needs (see Chart 4 for regional comparisons). Gross enrolment ratios include under- and over-age pupils in addition to those of the normal primary school age (usually six to eleven years old). Within the group of low-income economies, gross enrolment ratios for males range from 20 to 30 percent (Afghanistan, Mali, and Somalia) to over 100 percent (twelve countries). The gross enrolment ratios for females are consistently lower with only one exception (Lesotho with 125 percent for females versus 101 percent for males).

Net enrolment ratios (restricted to the primary school age cohort) are less generally available but show a similar pattern: countries with comparable economic conditions show significantly different education results. Among the low-income economies, reported net enrolment ratios for males range from 14 percent in Somalia and 31 percent in Guinea to 87 percent in Togo, 89 percent in Madagascar, and 99 or 100 percent in Indonesia and Sri Lanka. Female net enrolment ratios reported for the same set of countries range from 8 percent in Somalia, 15 percent in Guinea, and 20 percent in Burkina Faso to 96 percent in Indonesia and 100 percent in Sri Lanka. Of course, these differences are not solely a product of policy choices and priori-

**Box 2.03 DIKMAS: Income Generation and Literacy Programmes for Women in Indonesia**

DIKMAS is the Community Education Division of the Ministry of Education and Culture in Indonesia. Its programme of combining employment – oriented skill training closely linked with literacy efforts has helped Indonesia move from about a 60 percent literacy rate to nearly 80 percent over the past decade, while also providing earning opportunities for unemployed out-of-school youth.

"Learning and Earning" opportunities are being offered by the Kejar Paket A literacy and Kejar Usaha small enterprise programmes for women in Indonesia. The programmes, using such facilities and activities as village learning groups, reading courses, rural newspapers, and preparation for primary school equivalency examinations, aim to eliminate illiteracy, especially among women; to increase participation in child survival and development activities; and to enable women to increase their income through loans for small businesses. Most learners are poor, illiterate girls and women between the ages of 13 and 44, with no fixed occupation. The community provides tutors and a venue for classes, and a village task force manages funds for the programme.

In 1987 a midterm review found that Kejar Usaha group members have been able to increase their income by as much as 34 percent a year, and Kejar Paket A learners have been able to raise their income by 20 percent a year. The Kejar Paket A scheme has also become an alternative to formal schooling for primary school dropouts, who form 46 percent of learners. One innovation of the Kejar Usaha programme is that loans are being extended through the Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI) on collateral furnished by UNICEF and the government. This offers group members a chance to learn to deal with banks and frees civil servants from having to keep detailed accounts of payments and repayments.

A total of 5.6 million illiterates will be reached by the programmes during Repelita V, the country's next five-year development plan.

ties, but they do support the contention that both societal willingness and effort must be considered in evaluating the constraining effect of a nation's financial capacity.

One of the most widely used indicators of educational development is the female enrolment rate. Since females commonly are the last to benefit from educational expansion and the first to suffer from reductions in learning opportunities, their participation rates are a more sensitive indicator of access than are total or male only rates. The general pattern of female participation is one of lower aggregate enrolment rates with a notably greater degree of equality at entry to primary schooling than at termination. This finding indicates that attempts to improve gender equity must focus both on access and on the continued participation of females.

Not indicated in the available data is differential achievement. Anecdotal reports suggest that, even where participation in learning programs is high, social and cultural factors which influence career expectations and role definitions can indirectly affect learning achievement. A well-known example in the United States is the question of girl's achievement in science and math.

Participation by students until the end of the primary school cycle may be, however, a necessary if not sufficient condition for achieving an acceptable level of basic learning. For 1980-86, completion rates (the proportion of grade 1 enrollees who complete the primary cycle) reported by the low-income countries ranged from around 15 percent (Benin, Guinea-Bissau, and the Yemen Arab Republic) to 80 percent and above (Mauritania, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, and Zambia). Since high completion rates can reflect policies that restrict initial access opportunities in favour of elites, this indicator needs to be viewed in the context of both access and achievement levels. Similarly, reported levels of secondary school access indicate the effect not only of primary schooling but also of other determinants,

including the demand structure of the labour market and the availability of secondary school places.

Educational patterns also differs among the middle-income and the industrial market economies. For example, one lower middle-income nation reports a gross enrolment ratio for males of less than 75 percent, while twenty-five countries report ratios of 95 percent or above. Among the higher income nations, the reported female net enrolment ratios range from 48 to 100 percent.

Two critical facts are not directly indicated by the tables in the Data Annex. First, economically advantaged nations vary dramatically in how effective they are in extending learning opportunities to their disadvantaged populations. Second, the functional definition of basic learning may differ among developed economies and may include some post-primary education. Indicators related to these issues of access and definition may be derived, however, from variations in the percentage of grade 1 students completing the primary cycle and in the gross enrolment ratios at the secondary level.

A list of the desired effects of educational investments at the basic education level must include *initial access, continued participation, equity for disadvantaged populations*, and *learning achievement*. All of these are of some concern in all countries. As in the case of economic growth, however, the most disadvantaged nations face the most difficulty in achieving the desired effects.

In summary, multiple indicators of educational processes and effects are required to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of a nation's attempts to meet basic learning needs. The willingness of some nations to invest in basic education despite adverse economic conditions and their efforts to overcome financial constraints deserves both respect and further study. Examination of a high-performing nation's willingness and effort may help identify aspects that can be transferred to other national contexts.

The data on primary education efforts shed light on the incomplete coverage of the current systems; they also define more precisely the task of expanding basic education through primary schooling and equivalent systems, public information, and adult education and training programmes. The need for each nation to expand its out-of-school efforts is strengthened by the realization that, for many nations, the goal of universal primary schooling will not be attained in the immediate future.

*(v) Social impacts*

As noted earlier, the desired social outcomes of expanded basic learning include higher levels of literacy, health, and nutrition, lower fertility, and greater income equality. Indicators of these effects can be used to appraise the social justification for past investments in basic learning. Although simple cause-and-effect relationships again are difficult to document, numerous studies have demonstrated that basic education has direct effects on these social measures by transferring information and skills and indirect effects by altering general economic conditions and individual and community preferences.

In reviewing the available data, it becomes obvious once again that, while a correlation does exist between background economic conditions and these measures of social progress, many countries succeed beyond their expected levels while others seem to be underperforming relative to their economic context and fiscal capacity. While literacy levels, with some exceptions such as the notable achievements of Tanzania, follow the pattern of primary schooling effects, the same is not true for the other societal measures.

Under five mortality rates (U5MRs) have been notably reduced in such low-income nations as China, Kenya, Lesotho, Myanmar (Burma), Sri Lanka, Viet Nam, and Zambia. Poland, Jamaica, Costa Rica and Chile have outperformed the other lower-middle-income countries, and Greece and Portugal lead all higher-middle- income countries in this measure. In contrast, the United States is second in income, a leader in educational expenditure, and nineteenth in child mortality rates. Similar patterns of over- and under-achievement exist among countries for the measures of life expectancy, caloric intake, fertility rate, and the shares of income possessed by the lowest 40 percent and highest 20 percent of the population. (See Annex 1, Table 5.)

These data, and those summarized in Table 4, are presented in order to document that *nations* can do more with what they have

**Table 4 Economic and Social Indicators for Selected Countries**

| | *Illiteracy rate (%) 1985* | *Under-five mortality rate 1988* | *GNP per capita (US$) 1987* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Low-income countries | | | |
| Tanzania | 9 | 176 | 180 |
| Burkina Faso | 86 | 233 | 190 |
| Zambia | 14 | 127 | 250 |
| China | 21 | 43 | 290 |
| India | 57 | 149 | 300 |
| Nigeria | 57 | 174 | 370 |
| Lower-middle income countries | | | |
| Thailand | 9 | 49 | 850 |
| Jamaica | 7 | 22 | 940 |
| Guatemala | 45 | 99 | 950 |
| Cameroon | 38 | 153 | 970 |
| Peru | 15 | 123 | 1,470 |
| Costa Rica | 6 | 22 | 1,610 |
| South Africa | – | 95 | 1,890 |
| Upper-middle income countries | | | |
| Brazil | 21 | 85 | 2,020 |
| Yugoslavia | 8 | 28 | 2,480 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 4 | 23 | 4,210 |
| Libya | 34 | 119 | 5,460 |
| Oman | 70 | 64 | 5,810 |
| High-income countries | | | |
| Spain | 5 | 12 | 6,010 |
| Saudi Arabia | 49 | 98 | 6,200 |
| Hong Kong | 12 | 10 | 8,070 |
| Italy | 3 | 11 | 10,350 |
| United Arab Emirates | 47 | 32 | 15,830 |
| United States | 1 | 13 | 18,530 |

Note: Under Five Mortality Rate = Annual Number of deaths of children under five years of age per 1,000 live births.

Sources: UNESCO, Unicef and The World Bank.

and to justify the assertion that *a further margin of improvement is attainable* with proper targeting and the efficient use of additional funds. These funds can be mobilized not just from government but also from families, communities, the private sector, nongovernmental agencies, and external development assistance organizations.

Although economic development eventually will help achieve societal goals, some goals cannot wait for such progress. The data here show that, in fact, equivalent social development can be fostered at varying levels of economic development. Since social development – in the form of improved literacy, health, nutrition, population planning, and income equality – also promotes further economic development, this interaction provides clear grounds for an expanded vision and a renewed commitment to meeting the basic learning needs of all.

### C. The State of Adult Basic Education

Because of the diverse nature of adult education activities, the available aggregate data fail to capture adequately the content, effects, and target populations of specific programmes. As noted earlier, even the coverage and detail of the aggregate data are not as complete as in the case of formal education. Thus, the state of adult education can at best be merely approximated by the data in Annex 1, Table 6; country- and programme-specific data are the only reliable means for examining the issues of effort, direct effects, and social impacts discussed above.

Annex 1, Table 6 covers enrolment in adult education courses for seventy countries. It presents total adult education enrolment, the estimated population of those aged fifteen and over, the ratio of adults enrolled relative to the population estimate, and the proportion of female enrolments. The range of years covered – from the mid-1970s to the early 1980s – points to the need for a new international survey of this category of learning activities.

One striking characteristic of adult education is that the pattern of participation appears to be correlated more with the availability of national resources than with unmet basic learning needs. Of the forty-eight developing nations reporting data, only nine had participation rates of 5 percent or more of the adult population, even though adult needs for literacy and basic knowledge and skills are most dramatic in developing countries. In contrast, twelve of twenty-three more economically developed nations had a participation rate of 5 percent or more, and nine of these had a rate of over 10 percent (see Chart 5).

It is true that as economic development proceeds, the scope and content of basic learning needs change. The issue is not just that the level of enrolment in the developed nations is higher, but that adults in these countries typically have greater access to learning opportunities than adults in the developing nations. It is this combination of advantages that widens the knowledge gap between these two groups of countries. When the advantages of adult education are compounded by other favourable circumstances in the economically developed nations, the challenge to developing nations to maintain, let alone increase, their relative position is made dramatically difficult.

Information on female participation in adult education is not available for all countries. Among the thirty-four developing nations for which data are available, women represent half or more of the participants in only fourteen, though in five of these cases they represent two-thirds or more of the participants. Because females have often been denied access to and participation in formal education, their share of the need for adult education is greater than their share in the population. Therefore even an equal gender ratio could be interpreted as less than equitable to women.

In seven of the fourteen more developed countries reporting gender ratios, over 50 percent of the participants are women. But some of these countries have rates of female participation below one-third of all enrollees.

Adult education activities do not automatically serve their dual role of supplementing and extending the effects of formal education. The data here, as aggregate and dated as they are, suggest that basic learning opportunities for out-of-school youth and adults must be consciously designed to fit the needs that remain unmet by the primary education system and to meet the new learning needs created by the successful operation of primary education. Whether providing literacy, numeracy, knowledge to meet basic needs, or social and economic skills, the programmes to train youth and adults face rapidly evolving demands. The lack of adequate resources to meet those demands places an even greater burden on adult education programmes in most countries.

In summary, the state of adult education remains unclear because of data limitations and the internal complexity of the basic learning activities that occur. The available data do highlight a general pattern of increasing inequities among nations in participation and growing differences between genders in overall knowledge acquisition. More detailed data on the content and quality of programmes and on the characteristics of participants would not likely reverse this conclusion, and current observations of adult education in many developing and developed nations tend to reinforce it. Above all, there is a critical need to improve the data base on adult education to permit more detailed analysis and a more refined development of policy to meet the basic learning needs of adults.

### D. The State of Early Child Development

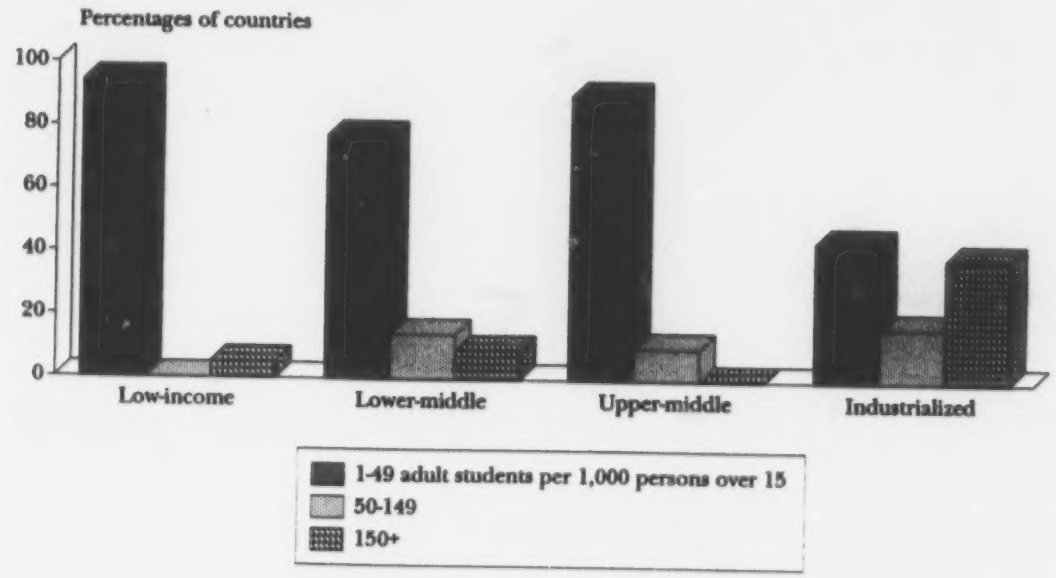
Early child development can be considered a component of basic education because learning begins at birth. Moreover, a growing body of evidence demonstrates that health, nutrition, and psychosocial processes interact to affect survival and development in the early years of life. The outcomes of these interactions condition the readiness of the child for school and other learning opportunities, which in turn influences the child's chances of enrolment and success in basic education programmes.

As with basic education for adults, the data on early child development is incomplete and does not lend itself readily to international comparisons. Early child development may include some or all of the following: nutrition supplementation, growth monitoring, caretaking, home instruction in pre-literacy and numeracy skills, and parent education for the benefit of the child, which may also be considered under adult education.

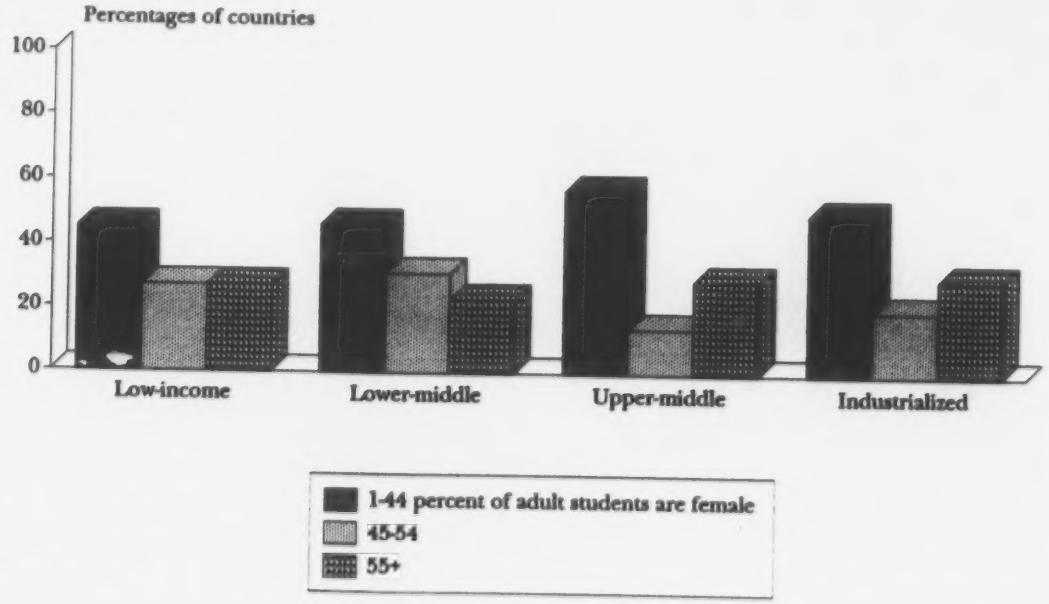
According to 1980 data from the World Bank, enrolment in preschools, a sub-category of early child development, was quite low in most low-income economies, with a median of one percent of the age-group for countries reporting data. In middle-income developing economies, the picture is more mixed. Enrolment rates ranged from a low of one percent to a high of 57 percent, with 4.5 percent as the median for lower-middle income economies and 15 percent the median for upper-middle income. In high income economies, median enrolment rates were 25.5 percent, with a

**Chart 5: Adult Participation Rates by Country Category**

**A. Adult students per adult population**




**B. Women as a proportion of adult students**



range from less than one to 66 percent. However, most statistics focus on organized preschool and child care programmes. Because of the difficulty in defining and identifying such educational programmes, the Unesco Office of Statistics points out that their estimates should be considered as the minimal figures for each country. What is clear from the data, however, is that in many countries, early childhood education has been the most rapidly expanding sector of education over the past decade.

From the growing body of studies and reports on specific early child development, two important impacts of early childhood development programmes on meeting basic learning needs have become evident. First, attention to the physical and psychosocial development of young children often enhances their ability to benefit from schooling, thereby increasing efficiency within the school system. Second, the positive effects on school performance of early child development programmes has been shown in many cases to be more significant for girls than boys, and for children from disadvantaged social groups than those from more affluent homes. Thus, early child development can have a substantial equity effect, by reducing disparities in subsequent educational attainment. So long as such programmes are only available to higher income groups, however, they may have the effect of further advantaging those groups, thus increasing inequities in learning achievement.

### E. Progress and Prospects

Since the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights articulated the right of everyone to education, the nations of the world frequently have established specific targets to make the right a reality. The 1956 Lima meeting and the 1963 Santiago Conference of Ministers of Education focussed on free and compulsory education in Latin America and the Caribbean; similar conferences in 1960 in Karachi and 1962 in Tokyo established the "Asian model" with goals of primary school gross enrolment ratios of 70 percent by 1964 and 90 percent in 1980. The Addis Ababa conference in 1961 affirmed the goal of universal primary education in Africa by 1980.

Ironically, the primary enrolments attained in 1970 and 1980 exceeded those projected by these UNESCO regional meetings, and yet universal primary education still was not achieved in many countries. The phenomenal growth of aggregate enrolments during the 1960s and 1970s was offset by rapid population growth and a widening divergence among the achievements of individual countries and geographical regions.

In the 1980s, Asia has consolidated its gains, and in the more developed countries emphasis has shifted from concerns with aggregate access to issues of achievement and equity for disadvantaged populations. In much of sub-Saharan Africa and in the least developed economies elsewhere, however, the 1980s have been a period of stagnation and, for some, a retreat from the goals of universal access.

The low-income economies (excluding China and India) have seen growth in primary enrolments fall from an average annual rate of 5.6 percent in 1975-80 to 2.7 percent for 1980–87. During this same period population growth increased annually from 2.7 percent to 3.4 percent on average and was accompanied by negative real economic growth rates for certain Sub-Saharan countries. Most middle-income countries maintained enrolment growth in proportion to population growth, but many faced mounting concern about the effectiveness of education (as measured in part by learning achievement) and the efficient utilization of funds. The lower-middle-income countries have not been able to maintain their 1975-80 enrolment growth rates into the 1980s, while the higher-middle-income countries have benefited from a decline in population growth rates that more than offset the slowing growth in enrolments.

According to UNESCO estimates, in 1985 approximately 105 million school-age children (six-eleven years old) were not participating in formal education. Of these, 70.2 percent were in the least developed nations and 60 percent were girls. If current trends continue, by the year 2000 the number of out-of-school children will almost double to approximately 200 million.

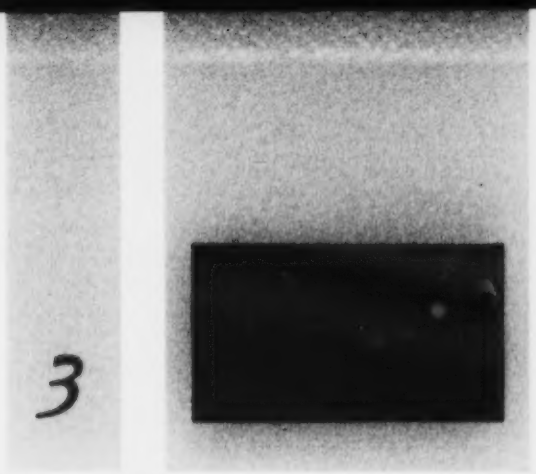
In summary, despite significant progress in the aggregate expansion of primary education, a growing number of children are not in school, nor ready when they do enter, the number of illiterate adults is increasing, and

the unmet needs for basic knowledge and skills continue to accumulate. These needs are expanding so fast that many formal primary education systems do not have the capacity to meet them. Without significant changes, many nations will have to forgo improvements in educational quality, and some will be forced to accept deterioration. High rates of dropout and repetition of grades will continue to characterize many basic education programmes – symptoms of the overwhelming needs and the current inadequacy of resource provision.

The challenge for the future remains the assurance of access to an acceptable quality of primary education, of literacy training, and of basic knowledge and essential life skills for all children, youth, and adults. However, universal access to primary education alone by the year 2000 would require raising enrolment by more than 7.5 percent a year for the low-income countries (excluding China and India), 3.2 percent for the lower-middle-income countries, and 3.0 percent for the upper-middle-income countries. The current growth rates for the three categories are 2.8, 2.4, and 1.7 percent respectively. One fact is obvious, therefore: *a linear expansion of current growth patterns will not be sufficient* to meet the basic learning needs of all. Government, families, communities and nongovernment organizations will all need to do more.

For the economically advantaged economies, increased efficiency and the availability of new resources will better their chances of improving educational quality for all and extending basic learning opportunities more effectively to currently marginal populations. For a middle range of countries, substantial increases in efficiency and effort (in the context of economic growth) will allow them to concentrate more on reducing the inappropriate repetition of grades and the number of dropouts. These countries can work toward providing universal access to primary education, encouraging completion of the primary cycle and the achievement of an acceptable level of learning, and improving opportunities for youth and adults to attain literacy and the basic knowledge and skills their society requires.

Under projected patterns of economic growth, however, a third group of countries simply will not be able to meet basic learning needs for all with their own resources. Greater government fiscal support, the mobilization of family, community, and nongovernmental resources, and increased efficiency – *even if all are achieved* – will not provide sufficient resources. External assistance, *substantial and sustained*, will be required to allow these countries to join those in the more advantaged categories in meeting the basic learning needs for all.



# 3

# *An Expanded Vision of Basic Education for All*

## A. Shaping the Vision

The preceding analysis of basic education and the prospect for meeting basic learning needs clearly indicates the significant challenges facing the world today. The basic learning needs of millions of people are not being met fully or well, and will not be *if current conditions and trends persist.* The challenge for all countries is to devise a feasible way to meet the basic learning needs of their population.

This requires more than a recommitment to basic education as it now exists. What is needed is an "expanded vision" that builds on the best of the present policies and practices but goes beyond existing resource levels, institutional structures, curricula, and conventional suppliers and incorporates whatever is needed to meet the basic learning needs of all. The structure and content of learning activities should be determined to equip all children, youth, and adults with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes they need to survive, to improve their quality of life, to empower them to participate fully and responsibly in the life of their communities and nations, to initiate and to adapt to changing circumstances – and to continue learning according to their individual needs and interests.

"An expanded vision" commensurate with the extent of the basic learning needs of children, youth, and adults can be conceived in terms of the following components:

- Universalizing access and promoting equity;
- Focussing on learning;
- Broadening the means and scope of basic education;
- Enhancing the environment for learning;
- Strengthening partnerships.

### *(i) Universalizing access and promoting equity*

Basic education should be provided to all children, youth and adults. To this end, basic education services of quality should be expanded, and consistent measures must be taken to reduce disparities. For basic education to be equitable, all children, youth, and adults must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning.

The most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of, education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated.

An active commitment must be made to removing other educational disparities. Underserved groups should not suffer any

**Box 3.01 Educating Girls: An Investment in Development**

Improving and widening access to education has been a major goal of education policy in most developing countries in the past two decades, reflecting the broad recognition of education's contribution to development. Evidence is overwhelming that education improves health and productivity in developing countries, and that the poorest people benefit the most. The evidence further shows that when schools open their doors wider to girls and women in particular, the benefits multiply. A more educated mother raises a healthier family. She has fewer and better educated children. She is more productive at home and in the workplace and is better able to get further education. Indeed, failure to raise women's education to a par with men's exacts a high development cost – in lost opportunities to raise productivity and income, and improve the quality of life.

Yet, female educational attainment is lower than for males in most developing countries. In some countries with wide differences between male and female schooling, only one out of five adult females can read; in a handful, only five percent are literate. And the education gender gap generally is widest in the poorest countries. If the benefits of educating women are so great and the costs of failure to erase inequities so high, why do wide differences in male and female education persist?

The answer lies in a complex mix of economic and cultural factors. Education costs include direct expenses such as tuition and school supplies, opportunity costs of lost work by daughters at home or in the marketplace, and cultural costs of going against society's norms of female behavior. Because of cultural and labor market restrictions on women's work in many poor countries, the perceived private benefits to the family that pays for a daughter's education are often not large enough to offset the costs. To be effective, governments must take all these costs into account while gradually educating parents about the benefits of sending girls to school.

Governments, international donors and NGOs are beginning to find innovative ways to deal with a wider range of constraints. In addition to increasing the supply of school places, many countries have experimented with incentives, such as scholarships for girls, to persuade parents to send their daughters to school. But much more needs to be done. For example, evidence in many Islamic countries shows that culturally appropriate and safe facilities and the presence of female teachers often remove disincentives for parents to enroll daughters. In addition, labor-saving technologies or flexible school schedules that reduce the time lost to household work of girls appear to be promising measures to adopt. Lastly, in countries that have achieved some success except for specific segments of the population, targeting becomes a key issue. Often, efforts to increase female enrollment should be targeted at families living in low-income and rural areas, where the benefits of educating girls are greatest.

discrimination in access to learning opportunities: the poor; street and working children; rural and remote populations; nomads and migrant workers; indigenous peoples; ethnic, racial, and linguistic minorities; refugees; those displaced by war; and people under occupation. The learning needs of the disabled demand special attention. Steps need to be taken to provide equal access to education to every category of disabled persons as an integral part of the education system.

In nearly every society, specific social groups have historically lacked the social conditions necessary to meet basic learning needs. Adequate supply of basic education programmes such that all members of society have access to them is a necessary but not sufficient condition for meeting the basic learning needs of all. Factors conditioning demand, such as the appropriateness of programmes to learners' needs, their design and delivery in accordance with learners' circumstances, and an environment that provides incentives and rewards for learning, all impinge on efforts to meet basic learning needs. Eliminating disparities in basic education will require that

**Box 3.02 Alternative Primary Education in Bangladesh**

For children in Bangladesh, as in many countries of the world, schooling is likely to be little more than a moment that ends too soon: 50 percent of youngsters of primary school age are actually enrolled in school but fully three-fifths of the youngsters in first grade leave only two years later, without basic literacy or numeracy skills.

The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC), is trying to change that by educating children – especially very poor rural children – who canot be reached by government schools or, once reached, do not stay in school. In 2,500 villages throughout Bangladesh, youngsters between the ages of eight and 10 study under the BRAC Alternative Primary Education programme. In the equivalent of first to third grades, they learn to read and write, to work with numbers and are taught science, social studies, health, and hygiene.

More than 95 per cent of students enrolled in the BRAC programme actually attend classes and more than 98 percent of those who enroll in the first year complete all three years; almost all continue their education in government schools. Sixty per cent of the BRAC students are girls, just as 60 per cent of the teachers are women (compared to eight percent of the teachers in the formal school system).

The Alternative Primary Education programme offers a curriculum appropriate to rural culture and needs, one that can be taught by paraprofessionals recruited from the community and that parents are eager to support with their time and labour. The learning environment does not alienate rural children: school hours are adapted to local conditions, and parent groups supervise the organization and management of each school centre.

The success of the programme shows that paraprofessionals can be trained effectively, provided they are given sufficient support. Although BRAC teachers are paid one-quarter of the average formal school salary and receive no benefits, they gain a sense of accomplishment and are respected in their communities. Fewer than two percent of teachers leave each year (most because their families are moving from the community).

The programme currently costs about US$15 per student per year, but the per-pupil cost will drop when the system expands to 3,500 schools in 1991 (although some donors have urged that expansion be speeded up). It is not yet clear whether BRAC should simply replicate its successful programme or continue to try new ideas for reaching those still without schooling.

BRAC's success has fired demand, as people see the possibilities for their children and their villages, but complete success would depend on a radical restructuring of national priorities and educational objectives.

equity effects be taken into account in the design, implementation, management, and evaluation of all basic education programmes.

*(ii) Focussing on learning*

Whether or not expanded educational opportunities will translate into meaningful development – for an individual or for society – depends ultimately on whether people actually learn as a result of those opportunities, i.e., whether they incorporate useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills, and values. The focus of basic education must, therefore, be on actual learning acquisition and outcomes, rather than exclusively upon enrolment, continued participation in organized programmes and completion of certification requirements. Active and participatory approaches are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition and maintenance, allowing learners to reach their fullest potential. Therefore, it is necessary to define acceptable levels of learning acquisition for educational programmes and to improve and apply systems of assessing learning achievement.

This focus on learning acquisition should help prevent policies which encourage access for all but adequate learning only for the more advantaged. For school systems in many

developing nations and in disadvantaged areas of some developed nations, the danger is that the sacrifices in quality that have occurred in recent years may not soon be removed or ameliorated. At the very least, continued educational expansion without attention to learning achievement will raise substantially the eventual cost of providing quality learning opportunities to the most disadvantaged populations. The other aspects of the expanded vision should help promote the expansion of basic education without the sacrifice of necessary learning achievement.

The focus on equitable achievement of learning outcomes includes, but is not restricted to, measurable cognitive gains. Demonstrable achievement in other areas, such as attitudes, values, and behaviour, can be part of each country's definition of acceptable learning acquisition for all. The nature of learning will vary by country, and within countries, by age groups and by level and purpose of instruction. Basic learning opportunities may be designed to meet intrinsic individual needs, to facilitate meeting other basic human needs (e.g., health, nutrition), and/or to provide learning which is instrumental in achieving larger community or societal concerns. Whatever the purposes of learning, evidence of demonstrable effects can help justify the sacrifices made by individuals and society to support learning.

Particular efforts will have to be made to maintain basic learning skills once they are acquired. Such post-basic education efforts should make more efficient use of existing media, such as the rural press, radio, television, etc. Isolated or marginal populations (e.g., in rural or mountainous areas, and in urban slums) will need reading materials that are relevant, stimulating, group specific, and culturally acceptable. Similar efforts are needed to further develop their writing and numeracy skills.

*(iii) Broadening the means and scope of basic education*

The diversity, complexity, and changing nature of basic learning needs of children, youth and adults necessitates broadening and constantly redefining the scope of basic education to include four components. These components should constitute an integrated system – complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and they should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning. First, as learning begins at birth, this calls for *early childhood care and initial education*. These can be provided through arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate.

Second, the main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling. Children who complete this level successfully should possess essential life skills and the capacity to benefit from further education. Achieving universal primary education will be the goal for many countries in the 1990s. For a large number of developing countries, however, it is unlikely that enough primary schools can be built, equipped and staffed at an acceptable level of quality to provide a place for every child in the immediate future.

Other vehicles for primary education, such as religious and community-based instruction, radio, television, and learning activities in clubs and libraries, also can meet the basic learning needs of children. Provided that the *same acceptable standards of achievement* are applied to all vehicles of primary education, it is possible to encourage such diversity in delivery without creating differential learning effects. The lack of adequate access to schools need not prevent any child from attaining a common educational foundation for life and for further learning.

Third, the basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems. Literacy programmes are indispensable because literacy is a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills. Literacy in the mother-tongue strengthens cultural identity and heritage. Other needs can be served by: skills training, apprenticeships, and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues.

Finally, all available instruments and channels of information, communications, and social action could be used to help convey

**Box 3.03 Improving Primary School Performance, Nutrition and Health**

Past efforts to improve the accessibility and quality of schooling in the developing world have focused primarily on school-related factors such as location of schools, teacher quality, availability of teaching materials and institutional management. Educational policy makers and planners have directed little attention to quality characteristics of children, such as their nutrition and health status and the way in which poor nutrition and health may be rendering children "unteachable".

The adverse effects of malnutrition and poor health on education may indeed be jeopardizing children's readiness to enter school, their ability to learn, and the duration of their schooling. Addressing children's nutrition and health could make a difference in terms of improving educational performance. Recent studies underscore a high prevalence in developing countries of damaging nutrition and health conditions among school age children, such as undernutrition and short-term hunger, lack of essential micro-nutrients, and parasitic worm infections that are inhibiting children's learning, and thus directly hindering many countries' efforts to provide effective learning opportunities to all their children.

To promote better awareness and understanding of the relationships between nutrition, health and educational performance at the primary level, Unesco has launched an international initiative which attempts to situate problems of nutrition and health within the complexity of factors determining educational participation and performance. This initiative seeks, on the one hand, to gather sufficient developing country experiences in analyzing how nutrition and health problems affect educational participation and, on the other, to test different types of approaches to address such conditions through school-based interventions which are cost-effective to reach school age children.

essential knowledge and inform and education people on social issues. In addition to the traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential to meet basic education needs.

All of these can serve to provide direct instruction to children and adults, as well as to train instructors and supervisors. The success of one technology over another is rarely generalizable, as local conditions inevitably shape the choice and effective utilization of technologies. In their most effective applications, such technologies have generally been adapted to supplement conventional delivery systems such as the classroom teacher, the literacy worker, and the agriculture, health, and family planning extension agent.

Communications media and other information dissemination systems are of particular importance. Media can have a planned and structured application in support of learning activities or, more commonly, can have an indirect impact through informal learning processes. In some industrialized countries, children may spend on average five hours or more per day exposed to modern mass media, especially television, an exposure which rivals their attendance in formal education. In developing countries, where imported foreign products often constitute as much as eighty percent of overall media programming, it is the image of the world conveyed by such media that feeds children's imagination and largely conditions their perceptions of cultural identity. The mass media have become major agents of learning, even though this learning is usually unstructured, unintentional, and sometimes socially harmful.

At the same time, communications media – both mass media, and smaller, community-based formats – can be important adjuncts and supports to education and development processes. They can be employed within formal education as a means of direct teaching or enrichment; they can provide alternative delivery systems in such contexts as distance education. Linked with computerized systems, they can help improve both the volume and

quality of information accessible to learners. In some nations, these new forms of information dissemination, when combined with incentives for information acquisition and utilization, constitute an effective channel for basic education. In summary, all available means and technologies for communications, information, and social mobilization must be utilized to disseminate basic learning and to educate the public about such concerns as health, nutrition, family life, sanitation, child care, population, environmental protection, agricultural techniques, and drug prevention.

*(iv) Enhancing the environment for learning*

Basic education should be planned in relation to the preconditions and concurrent requirements of learning. The preconditions of learning include the health, nutrition, and physical and intellectual stimulation to which the learner has been exposed prior to the learning activity. Some negative preconditions, such as disease and malnutrition, can exert powerful constraining effects on the capacity of the learner to benefit from a learning opportunity. Positive preconditions, such as supportive parents, siblings, and peers, can raise the entry-level capacity of the learner and enable learning activities to achieve more substantial and extensive results. More attention needs to be given to preventing disabilities among young children and to developing their faculties for learning.

One must also consider the concurrent requirements for nutrition, health, and stimulation. If these concurrent requirements are not met, the achievement of basic learning objectives will be limited. Therefore, basic education initiatives should be designed to promote a supportive learning environment in the home and community. The social, cultural and economic contexts play a role in defining basic learning needs, in motivating individuals to learn, and in determining the capacity of the society to initiate and reinforce learning programmes. Knowledge and skills that will enhance the learning environment of children should be integrated into community learning programmes for adults. The education of children and their parents or other caretakers is mutually supportive and this interaction should be used to create, for all, a learning environment of vibrancy and warmth.

*(v) Strengthening partnerships*

National, regional, and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all, but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organizational requirement for this task. New and revitalized partnerships at all levels will be necessary: partnerships among all subsectors and forms of education; partnerships between education and other government departments, including planning, finance, labour, agriculture, communications, health, social welfare, etc.; partnerships between government and non-governmental organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families. Recognition of the vital role of families, teachers and other educational personnel is particularly important. In this context, the terms and conditions of service of teachers and their status, which constitute a determining factor in the implementation of education for all, must be urgently improved in all countries in line with the joint ILO/UNESCO Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966). Genuine partnerships, which contribute to the planning, implementing, managing and evaluating of basic education programmes, are at the heart of the expanded vision and renewed commitment called for in the *World Declaration on Education for All.* (See Appendix for the final version of the *World Declaration on Education for All* adopted at Jomtien, Thailand on 9 March 1990.)

The scope of unmet learning needs also requires partnerships among countries (1) to exchange information, experiences, and innovations; (2) to collaborate on activities so as to reduce costs and pool human and financial resources; and (3) to provide technical assistance and financial support. The World Conference on Education for All can serve as the cornerstone for this process of international partnership and co-operation. The objectives of the Conference were to create a new awareness of basic learning, to produce a broad consensus on a feasible definition of the basic learning concept, to create new commitments to the goal of meeting the basic learning needs of all, to define a framework for action, and to mobilize worldwide support and resources. The realization of these goals will broaden dramatically the range of partners involved in

meeting basic learning needs and will help orient and organize their efforts.

## B. Requirements for Implementing the Vision

### *(i) Developing a supportive policy context*

By itself, basic education can help meet the intrinsic needs of learners, assist them to meet other basic human needs, and promote social and economic development. However, these latter two effects cannot be achieved in isolation of other public efforts. The knowledge and skills concerning health and nutrition, for example, are effective only when the concomitant resources and means are provided. Without a primary health delivery system, access to water, or availability of necessary foods, knowledge and skill alone will be insufficient.

Similarly, it is not adequate to orient education to prepare people for employment. Government and private enterprise must institute the appropriate rules, incentives, and support that will encourage wider demand for educated labour and more efficient utilization of it. More broadly, the effects of basic education are determined by the interaction of the full complex of government and private sectors – such diverse activities as agricultural pricing, political participation, entrepreneurial regulation, cultural practices, and infrastructure development all help determine the usefulness of the education individuals receive. The planning and management of education must consider the full range of learning opportunities needed *and* relate them to the full range of other government and private activities necessary to make the learning opportunities effective.

Supportive policies in the social, cultural, and economic spheres are required in order to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education for individual and societal improvement. Attaining basic education for all depends on political will and commitment manifested in appropriate fiscal measures, educational policy reforms and institutional strengthening. Suitable economic, trade, labour, employment and health policies will provide incentives for learners and enhance their contributions to societal development. Similarly, public policy should ensure a strong intellectual and scientific environment for basic education. This implies improving higher education, developing scientific research, and utilizing them to enrich the content and methods of basic education, particularly through the application of contemporary technological and scientific knowledge.

### *(ii) Mobilization of resources*

To respond to the unmet learning needs, new resources will have to be sought from three sources: (1) a broader governmental base of support; (2) an increased financial effort from expanded participation by nongovernment agencies, communities, families, and individuals; and (3) assistance from external funding agencies. This entails identifying and drawing on the support of government, the private sector, nongovernmental organizations, local communities, and families. In most countries, all of these play some part in financing basic education – from government's formal taxation and expenditure activities to the family's sacrifice of labour so that the child can attend schools or the adult can acquire new skills.

A broader base of government support can be achieved by mobilizing the resources of all government agencies that deal with some aspect of human development. Agencies responsible for agriculture, health, labour, defense, commerce, industry, and other development activities can be encouraged to make specific allocations within their own budgets to support basic education activities. Whether by developing new sources of revenue (for example, taxes earmarked for basic education) or reallocating funds from other sectors or within the education sector, government will need to take the lead in expanding new basic learning opportunities.

Government resources alone will not be sufficient, however, to meet effectively the basic learning needs of all groups. Greater participation by nongovernmental organizations, communities, families, and individuals is needed. Examples of these forms of participation include support provided by local community organizations, employers, labour unions, co-operatives, voluntary organizations, and religious bodies. Often, existing programmes or services can be reoriented or enlarged to include an educational component or to

support ongoing education and training activities. In some cases, facilities and materials can be produced by volunteers or donated. This diversification of participation also can encourage the broad commitment needed to ensure that society gives a real priority to meeting the basic learning needs of all, and thereby investing in its future.

In many cases, no matter how well a country mobilizes and allocates its resources, it still will not be able to meet the basic learning needs of the entire population. Because of their disadvantageous conditions, the least economically developed countries will not immediately have the capacity to supply the necessary quantity and diversity of learning opportunities. Only external assistance, of a significant amount and sustained over time, can meet the resource needs for basic learning in these countries. The long-term return on this investment, and the goal of external assistance, will be the eventual development of each country's self-sufficiency in providing basic education.

*(iii) Strengthening international solidarity*

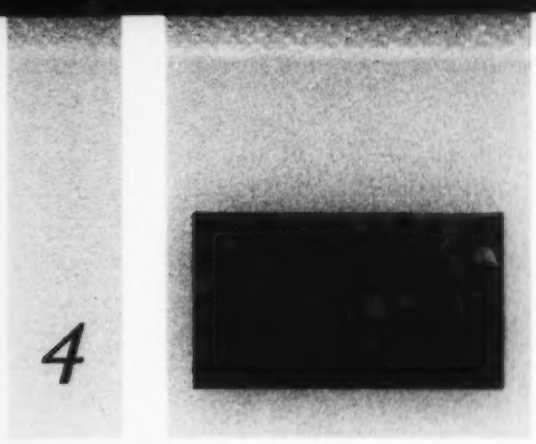
Meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility, requiring international solidarity and co-operation. All nations have valuable knowledge and experience to share in this field and much to gain in doing so. International consultation and co-operative action regarding basic education through the many existing structures and institutional arrangements need to be intensified.

The prospects for meeting basic learning needs around the world are determined in part by the dynamics of international relations and trade. A stable and peaceful international environment will facilitate socio-economic development and hence the prospects for expanding basic learning opportunities. All nations must continue to work together to resolve armed conflicts and to end military occupations. The world community has a particular responsibility to settle displaced populations or to facilitate their return to their countries of origin and ensure that their basic learning needs are met.

With the current relaxation of tensions and the decreasing number of armed conflicts, there are now real possibilities to reduce the tremendous waste of military spending and to shift those resources into socially useful areas, including basic education. The world community and individual governments need to plan this conversion of resources for peaceful uses with courage and vision, and in a thoughtful and careful manner.

To achieve education for all, substantial and long-term increases in resources for basic education will be needed. While most of these resources must necessarily come from within each country, the world community will need to act through multilateral and bilateral agencies to alleviate the constraints and deficiencies that prevent some countries from meeting the basic learning needs of their populations. The least economically developed and low-income countries have special needs which will require priority attention in international co-operative efforts during the 1990s.

Measures to reduce or eliminate current imbalances in trade relations and to reduce debt burdens will enable many low-income countries to rebuild their own economies and release and retain the human and financial resources needed for development and for providing basic education to their populations. In this connection, structural adjustment policies should protect appropriate funding levels for education.



# 4

# *Meeting Basic Learning Needs: Analyzing Policies and Programmes*

## A. Introduction

To meet the basic learning needs of its population, each country must first diagnose its own societal resources and requirements in order to define the basic level of learning suited to its context. This diagnosis requires analyzing national background characteristics, financial constraints, current educational effort and effects, and present conditions of societal development. On this basis, a country can establish appropriate targets and derive suitable strategies for implementing policies and programmes to meet basic learning needs for all.

The decisions implicit in this process will be difficult and may lead to adjustments in the education sector to incorporate the expanded vision of basic education. This could entail adjustments to the management structure, incentive measures, the content of basic education, and the methods of providing and monitoring basic learning activities. As countries develop their own policies and programmes for the expanded vision of basic education, they must be especially concerned with four policy issues: *relevance, quality, equity*, and *efficiency*.

The concept of *relevance* implies that the results of basic education must be evaluated in terms of how well the learner is prepared for immediate life survival (including employment), effective participation in society, and further learning. In some nations, further learning will include formal schooling beyond the primary level; in others, a variety of less formal activities will offer more advanced education, skill training, and opportunities to acquire and use specific information. The mix between these two forms of post-basic learning depends on the public and private supply of learning opportunities and on the demand for them as determined, in part, by their relevance and effectiveness.

The *quality* of learning activities has traditionally been defined in terms of the inputs to a programme, institution, or system. Preferably, measures of output (especially levels of learning achievement and graduation rates) should be used as substitutes for or, at least, complements to the input measures. Measures of the learning process – the actual interaction of the learner with the learning resources and environment – are least commonly used to indicate learning quality because of the methodological problems of measuring process effects. Therefore, the definition and analysis of learning quality has relied excessively on input and output measures without a clear understanding of how the

**Box 4.01 International Comparability of Learning Outcomes**

Over the past twenty years the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement has been a leader in the development of comparable measures of achievement among industrialized and developing countries. IEA's earlier work focused on reading and science, however in a new IEA project, 35 countries are cooperating to assess the reading literacy standards and practices of 9 and 14 year olds in their countries. An international steering committee made up of members from New Zealand, Sweden, USA, Venezuela, the Federal Republic of Germany, Australia and Fiji, has designed a four-year study, and the international coordinating center has been established in Hamburg. The definition of reading literacy adopted by the steering committee is "the ability to understand and use those written forms of language which are expected by society and/or valued by the individual."

The project aims to:

- develop a valid set of measures, suitable for determining the literacy levels and practices of people in many countries.
- estimate, the percentages of students reading at specified levels of literacy, through a standardized set of literacy tasks and questionnaires, with each country setting its own expected levels of performance.
- determine how much reading is undertaken by students in each country, for what purposes and in which contexts.
- identify the home, school, and society influences which are most closely related to the literacy levels and habits of 9 year olds in each country.
- establish a data bank for each country, so that changes in literacy can be measured over time and related to various indicators of health, economics and so on.

The specific tasks included in the tests will include processing of continuous prose, both narrative and expository, and of documents like tables, directories, signs, and recipes. The main testing activities will take place in 1990 and 1991, and a brief report of the major findings will be issued in June 1992. A fuller volume of results will be completed by December 1992. The expected findings will include indicators of levels of literacy in each country, international comparisons of levels, practices and policies, information on the influence of different school and national policies, and interpretations of these findings.

The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development has also launched a project that emphasizes the development of educational indicators for individual countries, but with attention to their international comparability. Regional programmes have been developed and the Nordic Committee of Education Statistics has already tested a few common indicators during the 1989 school year. The ultimate objective of these activities is to build national capacities for analysis and planning, while providing standards of national and international comparability of learning outcomes.

available inputs are transformed into the desired outputs. The analysis of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement's Second Mathematics Study presents one example of how this understanding might be improved by the simultaneous consideration of inputs, processes, and outputs.

Participation in basic education has increased impressively over the last thirty years but with varying degrees of *equity* in pupil's access to and continuation in programmes, as well as in learning achievement. Most commonly, individuals suffer from learning inequities because of their poverty, gender, location, religious, linguistic, or ethnic identification, and physical or mental disability. In certain societies all of these characteristics operate to reduce learning opportunities, and in most societies they have some interaction (e.g., poor rural minorities) that compounds the problem of inequity.

In all nations, the children of the disadvantaged are the least likely to be ready for, or to

enroll in, and the most likely to drop out of, learning programmes. If the available learning opportunities for children, youth and adults (beginning in the preschool years) fail to provide the participants with necessary knowledge and skills, individual decisions not to attend or continue may appear logical, but in the long-term these individual decisions impose high costs on society.

The effectiveness of a learning activity refers to how well its goal is accomplished; *efficiency* refers to how well the goal is accomplished relative to the resources spent. By incorporating both costs and effects, measures of efficiency are the best indicators of how well individual programmes or learning activities are performing with the funds available to them. When the issues of relevance and equity are incorporated in the definition of educational goals, efficiency becomes a more meaningful concept and includes the common indicators of quality.

Efficiency is not identical with reducing costs. Although cost containment may result from an efficiency analysis, an appraisal of a learning activity may well conclude that greater expenditure is needed. Whether or not expenditures can be increased depends on fiscal capacity and priorities, not efficiency. This point is important for all basic education. Some programmes are inexpensive but inefficient because the expenditure produces few if any desired effects. Other programmes (such as rural schooling and basic training for the disabled) may appear relatively expensive but still be considered efficient if they provide the least costly means of serving these populations.

In this chapter basic education programmes and policies will be reviewed in terms of the current state of research and understanding. The intent is *not* to be explicitly prescriptive, but to summarize research, observations, and experiences from past and current efforts of nations to meet basic learning needs. This review is intended to assist countries in the formulation of their own policy and research agendas and the specification of the appropriate implementation strategies for basic education programmes. Each country will find some ideas to adopt, or to adapt to its circumstances, whereas others may appear inappropriate or irrelevant. This review of policies and programmes considers

1. early child development;
2. meeting the basic learning needs of children; and
3. meeting the basic learning needs of youth and adults.

### B. Early Child Development

Any learning activity depends significantly upon the characteristics of the learners. Research has documented that the most critical determinants of the learning capacity of children entering primary school are nutrition, health, and the early social environment. The appropriate policy response to these relationships is twofold. First, health, nutrition, and social development programmes must look beyond their immediate benefits to their long-term positive effects on learning. Second, basic education and training alternatives can offer wider and more equitable access to preschool opportunities, and to nutrition and health services, such as school feeding programmes. In their content, basic education programmes can include the life-skills necessary to improve the environment for meeting the basic learning needs of the next generation.

The first response is *preventive*; it combats the cognitive and behavioural disadvantages that originate from malnutrition, disease, inadequate caregiving or an unstimulating social environment. This response recognizes that basic learning begins at birth (and significant determinants of learning can originate prior to birth) and not at entry to formal learning activities. Early intervention programmes among poor children in countries as diverse as Brazil, Colombia, Haiti, India, Thailand, and the United States demonstrate the long-term advantages to children and society that such programmes offer. These programmes experimented with a variety of alternative strategies including (a) attending directly to the child through child-care centres; (b) educating parents and other care-givers to enrich their understanding and practice of care-giving; and (c) fostering community development activities designed to enhance the environment of the young child. Benefits to children participating in such programmes include subsequent higher levels of academic achievement and higher success rates in primary school than children who have

**Box 4.02 Preschools for Palestinian Refugees**

Mothers woke the head teacher of the Jabaliyah kindergarten at five o'clock on the morning of registration. Why wasn't she at school enrolling their children? With only a limited number of places available to five-year-olds, mothers were eager to ensure that their children would not miss out. Fathers had volunteered their labour and some materials to expand the facilities, but the space still could not keep up with demand.

Jabaliyah is a refugee camp for Palestinians in the Occupied Territories of the Gaza Strip. Given their uncertain status and unstable living conditions, refugees everywhere in the world often look to the international, rather than the local, community for basic services and rarely have the opportunity to participate in decisions or take responsibility for institutions that affect their lives. In Jabaliyah, and in 14 similar centres in Gaza, communities are encouraged to get involved in building the basis of an independent educational system.

The kindergartens are jointly sponsored by the American Friends Service Committee and Save the Children Fund/UK, two international private voluntary organizations. In the past two decades, these centres have reached more than 18,000 children, and currently serve 1,600 youngsters each year – about one-seventh of all eligible five-year-olds.

The director, head teachers, teachers, and teacher's aides are Palestinians selected from the communities around each centre. In recent years, head teachers have been given greater control over centres, and parents have been more directly involved in activities and operations.

Teachers in elementary schools run by the United Nations Relief and Works Administration report that children from the preschools show a high degree of both social and academic development and some teachers have begun to include preschool techniques in their curricula.

In the preschools, children learn through an array of activities: pre-reading and numeracy exercises, storytelling, field trips, and play. Curricula link the community and the classroom, using the immediate environment as both laboratory and source of instructional materials.

A Preschool Resource Center to train preschool teachers throughout the Gaza Strip has recently been established. Based on the kindergarten experience, the Resource Center helps communities develop the skills to begin or improve their own preschool and day-care programmes.

not received similar early enrichment. Moreover, these benefits are especially strong for girls and disadvantaged children, who have a higher risk of physiological underdevelopment and who have limited access to and lower achievement in schools, when such early intervention programmes do not exist.

The second response is not only *preventative* but also *compensatory* and *reinforcing*. The provision of early childhood learning opportunities and of health and nutrition services can offset some of the damage to infants from inadequate preconditions for learning. In addition, health and nutrition services offered concurrently with basic learning programmes reinforce the ability of individuals to benefit from the basic learning provided. The World Food Programme allocates approximately 17 percent of its $600 million of development food assistance to education. The benefits of this assistance include increased access to education, improved quality of learning, and more effective use of learning after leaving education.

Early intervention is essential to prevent and overcome disablement. Any interruption of normal development in an impaired child is often far more serious than the direct consequences of the impairment. Thus the validity of intervention must be measured by the degree to which it enhances normal child development and supports the family in achieving this objective.

Not all of the determinants of the favorable conditions for effective learning are within the influence of education policy or even general

**Box 4.03 India: Integrated Child Development Services**

The ICDS, the largest programme of its kind in the world, illustrates the power of political commitment to achieve significant rates of coverage in integrated programmes of attention to children, ages 0 to 6, with important effects on health and education, and at a reasonable cost per child.

Beginning in 1975 with 33 experimental projects, India's Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) has grown to almost 2000 projects in 1989, reaching 11.2 million children under 6 years of age. The overall goals of the programme are: to provide a comprehensive range of basic services to children, expectant and nursing mothers, and other women aged 15-45; to create a mechanism at the village level through which the services can be delivered; and to give priority to India's low-income groups, including the underprivileged tribes and underprivileged castes.

The integrated package of ICDS services works through a network of Anganwadi (courtyard) Centers, each run by an Anganwadi Worker (AW) and helper, usually selected from the local village. The AW undergoes a three-month training in one of the more than 300 training centers run by voluntary and government agencies. Support is provided to the AW by a supervisor (1 per 20 AW) and a Child Development Programme Officer (1 per 5 supervisors) who is directly responsible for the implementation and management of each ICDS project.

The ICDS programme utilizes existing services of diverse governmental departments and voluntary agencies. Overall administration lies with the Department of Women and Child Development within the Ministry of Human Resource Development. The annual unit cost per child per year is estimated at Rs. 115 (approximately 10 US dollars).

Although the programme often operates at a minimum level of quality, it has nevertheless had important effects on the under-six population. For instance, a review of some 30 studies of the nutritional impact reveals unanimous results documenting a positive outcome. A 1984-86 comparative study done in a number of locations showed ICDS/non-ICDS infant mortality rates of 67 versus 86 in rural areas and 80 versus 87 in urban areas. In a comparative study of effects on schooling, it was found that those with ICDS backgrounds had a higher primary school enrolment rate (89 percent versus 78 percent), were more regular in primary school attendance, performed better academically, and scored significantly higher on a psychological test than non-ICDS children. Furthermore, the difference in enrolment rates was accounted for by higher enrolments of ICDS girls. Another study found that primary school dropout rates were significantly lower for ICDS versus non-ICDS children from lower and middle caste groups (19 percent versus 35 percent for lower castes and 5 percent versus 25 percent for middle castes).

public policy. Nevertheless, these conditions must be considered in the design of policies and programmes to meet the basic learning needs of children, youth, and adults.

### C. Meeting the Basic Learning Needs of Children

For most countries, a discussion of basic learning needs of children will focus on the primary school age group, normally those six to eleven years old. Enrolments may include pupils one to two years younger and up to three years older (or even more in areas where primary education is being offered for the first time).

The main vehicles for delivering primary education are the school and the out-of-school programmes that provide equivalent instruction. In the discussion of primary education that follows, most of the research cited has been on formal *schooling*. However, the policy issues of relevance, quality, equity, and efficiency apply similarly to both school and non-school settings for primary education. Where special conditions apply either to primary schooling or to equivalent alternatives this will be noted.

Primary schooling is the most formal method of providing basic learning. Normally an institutionalized, graded, and hierarchical

system, in most nations it is characterized by the highest levels of participation, standardized curricula, and significant government involvement in the initiation, financing, regulation, and/or provision of schools. Primary schools are often the most visible and widely disseminated social institution in a country.

Therefore, primary schooling is central to the expanded vision of basic education. *First*, because it is the major vehicle for meeting basic learning needs, high-quality primary schooling for all children is a vital concern. *Second*, the shortfalls in access to primary schooling in any country define the immediate and intermediate demand for alternative, equivalent programmes. *Third*, the accomplishments of primary education determine the demand for literacy activities and knowledge and skill programmes for youth and adults. *Fourth*, appropriate learning achievement in primary schools and equivalent programmes will help establish a sound basis for further learning and prepare future instructors and teachers.

*(i) Increasing relevance*

Research findings demonstrate that primary education can improve labour productivity and entrepreneurial skills, help develop appropriate values, attitudes, and behaviour, and have positive intergenerational effects on families and communities. These results justify the importance attached to the relevance of primary education.

In most countries, primary schools have a dual function. *First*, their chief objective is to impart essential cognitive skills and knowledge: almost everywhere, the curriculum gives priority to reading, writing, and basic mathematics. In most nations, the curriculum also attempts to provide the basics of the scientific method and to promote moral and civic education. In the more successful cases, the curriculum also promotes the attitudes and essential life skills necessary for individuals to function effectively in their society.

*Second*, in addition to imparting a common core of knowledge and skills, primary schools prepare students for further learning. The extent to which primary schools emphasize preparation for further academic education should depend on the availability of opportunities to continue formal education, most notably in secondary schools, and on the benefits to be gained from further learning. Primary schooling also is the foundation for future vocational education, much on-the-job training, and for immediate employment in some occupations.

All primary schools have multiple cognitive and noncognitive objectives. Over the last two decades, the schools of the world often have been given a variety of new goals (related to, for example, health, nutrition, political orientation, and social equity) without sufficient funds to fulfill these new expectations. In both developed and developing nations the result often has been not only poor achievement in these new areas but also erosion in the achievement of the core of the primary school curriculum.

A primary school should be allowed to give the highest priority to its explicit responsibility for imparting cognitive skills and essential knowledge and attitudes to all its pupils. National authorities should add other responsibilities only when the school (through new curriculum, management structures, or funding) is provided with the resources necessary to carry out these new tasks effectively. A primary school that graduates pupils who do not have basic literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving skills *has failed as a school* regardless of how effective it may have been in meeting other cultural, social, or political needs. In contrast, the primary school that succeeds in imparting its core curriculum is laying the best foundation for meeting these other critical needs as well. Properly designed curricula and instructional materials can promote a greater synergism between cognitive and other objectives of the primary school.

In many developing countries, primary school graduates are the local leaders in acquiring and disseminating the information needed to achieve the cultural, social, and political goals of the nation. In localities where few people have achieved literacy, primary school graduates act as community leaders and teachers. The ultimate validation of the primary school's emphasis on literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving skills will depend on the school's ability to produce graduates who use these newly acquired skills to benefit their community and nation, not just themselves.

*To measure relevance* it is first necessary to specify the desired effects of primary schooling and to define the relative value of those

**Box 4.04 Kenya: Examination Reform Improves Performance**

**Beginning in the mid-1970s, Kenya has progressively carried out a programme directed towards the reform of the examination system, and particularly of the Certificate of Primary Education (CPE) examination which terminated the basic education cycle and governs access to secondary school. The programme had five specific aims: (1) to improve the efficiency of the examination as a selection instrument; (2) to give less-privileged pupils (including rural pupils, girls, and those from low-income families) a better chance of showing their abilities and hence gaining access to secondary school; (3) to encourage and assist teachers to provide all pupils, but especially those for whom basic education will be terminal, with a more relevant set of cognitive skills; (4) to improve the overall quality of basic education; and (5) to reduce quality difference among districts and among schools.**

**Two main reforms were introduced. First, the content of the examination itself was changed substantially to test competence in a much wider range of cognitive skills, including the ability to observe and to interpret data, to reason and to solve problems, and to communicate effectively using connected prose. Whenever possible, these skills are tested in contexts similar to those in which they are likely to be used when the pupils leave school. Second, the examination is now used as an instrument for monitoring the performance of the schools, and hence for improving educational quality. The information generated is of two main kinds: overall performance information, which provides an incentive for schools and districts to improve their performance; and item response information, which provides insight into the difficulties pupils are having in answering the questions, and hence into the remedial action needed. Incentive information is fed back to the schools through district and school merit order lists, and guidance information through the CPE Newsletter, published annually.**

**The initial impact of the introduction of the feedback system was to widen achievement differences among districts, because the districts which were already performing well responded to the new information more rapidly. In 1980 and 1981, however, after the system had been in operation for four years, this trend was reversed: nearly all districts which had been lagging showed striking performance gains. Content changes have in general made the examination both a better test of terminally-relevant skills and a more efficient selection instrument. But in some cases the goals of relevance and equity have proved incompatible with each other: items testing relevant skills have been answered much less successfully by pupils in low-cost schools than by pupils in privileged high-cost and private schools. Efforts are being made through the information feedback system to provide teachers in low-cost schools with the guidance they need to teach these skills more effectively.**

effects. Because many of these effects are qualitative and some occur long after the students leave school, relevance is usually measured in terms of more easily quantifiable school outputs, which are assumed to be proxies for the more qualitative and less immediate effects. Standardized tests and attitudinal and behavioural appraisals commonly are used to help assess relevance. However, standardized testing can be a means of either increasing relevance or distorting instruction away from relevance.

Tests are administered at the end of the primary cycle for two reasons: to assess the level of measurable learning achievement and to select individuals for further learning, usually in formal secondary schools. Although there should be substantial congruence between the two purposes, it is possible for the design of the test to be biased. If it overemphasizes the selection function, it may not adequately assess the important knowledge and skills relevant for those students who will leave formal schooling at this level.

When properly designed and used, standardized examinations to measure learning achievement can help promote accountability within primary schools. In addition, test results can be used to identify weaknesses in the learning process and thus to promote more

**Box 4.05 Language: A Moving Force**

The language situation of a nation is critical to the success or failure of literacy and basic education programmes. Language situations vary depending on historical and political traditions. Multi-lingualism is the norm, and only a very few nations in the world can be considered primarily monolingual (i.e., where 90 percent of the population speak the same language).

Over 800 million of the estimated 960 million illiterates live in parts of the world where the language situation is exceedingly complex. Sound language planning on the part of policy makers, however, is often hindered by three common misconceptions. First, some people fear that multi-lingualism impedes economic development. However, Singapore with one of the highest growth rates in the world has four official languages. Second, some people believe that a language of wider communication is the most direct route to economic development. However, Sweden demonstrates that a country does not need a language of wider communication to develop. Finally, some people believe that language is static. However, languages are constantly changing and borrowing new words from other languages to meet the changing needs of business, science and technology. The experience of refugees and migrants suggest that people can acquire new languages and literacies as the need arises.

Many developing countries increasingly recognize the importance of mother tongue education. Instruction in the mother tongue has cognitive and emotional benefits and decreases the dissonance that may arise between the home and school environment. Literacy in the mother tongue also has intergenerational benefits and provides for everyday uses of the language. A language of wider communication which may have more administrative and political functions can then be introduced at a later stage in the educational cycle.

Sound language planning requires the combined expertise of linguists, ethnologists, educators and politicians, but the planning process must involve local communities to be effective. In many areas of the world, villagers are skeptical of education and literacy instruction. As one community elder from New Guinea observed, "Education for what? When our children come home they are good for nothing; they have even lost the skill of garden work; they don't know enough English and are not literate in Pidgin either." Community members know best how to adapt literacy materials and instruction to local social, environmental, and economic conditions. Involving communities in the planning process and providing instruction in indigenous or vernacular languages may mitigate the pressures of rural-urban migration often associated with "Westernized" forms of education.

Carefully planned language policies will contribute to the success of literacy and basic education programmes and ultimately to larger developmental goals.

effective school processes in the future. Both as an indication of learning achievement and of unmet learning needs, measurement of learning outcomes is a valuable part of education management. Countries will need to design or improve examinations in order to take advantage of the useful functions they can perform; for those learning outcomes not amenable to measurement by examinations, other accountability measures can be developed.

Much has been said about how to increase the relevance of primary education, including schooling. A danger is that relevance to the local and immediate environment can take precedence over the more general and long-term conditions for which basic education should prepare the individual. Primary education can prepare people to be better farmers or craftsmen without precluding other possibilities for them. In addition, primary education can contribute to nation building, development of civic responsibility, and values formation.

The relevance of learning will change as individuals change their location and as the characteristics of communities change over time. If vocationalization and localization of

the curriculum are carried too far, the learners will not have the skills necessary to adapt to the changes that are inevitable in all nations. The curriculum should make appropriate use of local materials, local examples, local languages, and local personnel to create a relevant and efficient learning experience; however, the core content of the learning experience should focus on literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem-solving – general skills and essential learning tools that are applicable across locations and over time. Ultimately, of course, each society will have to decide for itself the appropriate balance between local, immediate relevance and general, long-term relevance. In making this decision, educational authorities should keep in mind that primary schools and their equivalents cannot do everything, nor can they do more than their resources allow. Primary education is only one part of a larger basic learning process, and concurrent and subsequent opportunities for learning can help address the need for more specific forms of relevance.

*(ii) Improving quality*

As noted earlier, school or educational quality has a variety of meanings, depending on what measures are selected. Here, the discussion of quality will focus on four sets of indicators: student characteristics, educational inputs, educational processes, and educational outputs and outcomes.

The *characteristics of pupils* in a school are one indicator of school quality. The policies that most affect this factor are those concerning early childhool development. The key implication for primary schools is that premature placement of pupils in different learning "tracks" on the basis of perceived differences in their competence may be both inefficient and inequitable. It is inefficient because cognitive development proceeds at a different pace for different children, and it is inequitable because economically disadvantaged children are more likely to be perceived as lacking ability.

The mix of pupil characteristics within a school or classroom often is a product of the preconditions for schooling. Where nutrition, health, and opportunities for physical and mental stimulation are poor, pupils may lack many of the characteristics most conducive to learning. Elsewhere, the mix of characteristics will be a result of the social, economic, or demographic patterns of the society. As suggested earlier, improved equity in early childhood experiences will greatly advance equity in learning achievement within schools and will improve the chances to complete the primary cycle. Programmes that give all children the necessary health and nutritional support while in school, as well as access to positive learning experiences and encouragement within the community, also can do much to resolve problems of both efficiency and equity in school learning.

Among *input measures*, those most commonly used to indicate the quality of primary education are teacher characteristics, availability of educational materials, availability of equipment and facilities, administrative and supervisory activities, and summary measures such as expenditure per pupil. The *teacher characteristics* are used because the teacher is the primary source of instruction in most societies and has been recognized as such by most curricula and forms of classroom organization. For many countries, the focus on learning achievement implies increasing teacher capacity and performance through preservice and inservice training and improved school and classroom management.

*Teacher effectiveness* usually is indicated by such characteristics as formal academic study, teacher training, subject mastery, verbal ability, attitudes toward teaching, and availability (attendance rates and the pupil/teacher ratio). The first two relate to the formal preparation of the teacher and are assumed to be positively related to subject mastery and pedagogical skills. Most national authorities determine whether teachers are "qualified" on the basis of their having attained some combination of formal academic study and teacher training.

For primary school teachers the requirements for subject mastery are relatively low in many countries, not because of choice, but because of the supply of teachers (itself a response to training opportunities and salary and incentive systems). Nearly all nations have standards for primary school teachers that are less rigorous than those for teachers at other levels. However, given the critical cognitive period covered by primary schooling, the fact that it has the most equitable access, and the indicated social returns to

**Box 4.06 Early Child Care in Brazil Pays for Itself**

Attention to the combined education, health and nutritional needs of young children can be a cost-effective investment. In Brazil, for instance, an innovative programme involving urban families living in marginal economic conditions paid for itself by reducing repetition significantly in the first years of primary school.

Programa de Alimentacao do Preescolar (PROAPE), funded under a loan from the World Bank to the Brazilian government, began in 1977 as a pilot project in the State of Pernambuco and, in 1981, was replicated in another 10 states of Northern and Northeastern Brazil, using several adaptations of the pilot project. The PROAPE model involves bringing children ages 4 to 6 together in centers during weekday mornings in groups of about 100 children for a snack and for supervised psychomotor activities. A health component of check-ups, vaccinations, dental treatment and hygiene, and visual exams is also provided.

The children are attended by trained personnel assisted by mothers or other family members on a rotating basis. In the original model, one certified professional was assisted by six community members. In one state, Alagoas, the centers are run by three trained paraprofessionals called "estagiarias" (with help from parents) who are paid 70 percent of a minimum salary for their morning's work.

One evaluation revealed that the combined repetition and drop-out rate for PROAPE versus non-PROAPE children was 39 percent versus 52 percent in the first grade and 27 percent versus 44 percent in the second. The total cost of schooling (including preschool PROAPE services) per second-grade graduate was calculated to be about 11 percent less for students who had been in the PROAPE programme than for those who had not. By substantially reducing repetition and dropout rates, the programme had paid for itself.

In the Alagoas case, evaluation data showed a similar result: 73 percent of the children from PROAPE passed the first grade (in 1982) versus only 53 percent of the children without any preschool experience. In this case, the combined preschool and primary school cost per first grade graduate, including the PROAPE cost, was 17 percent lower than for a child who hadn't attended preschool.

investment in primary education, it is ironic, if not indefensible, that greater emphasis is not placed on the quality of instructional personnel at this level.

Several studies have shown the verbal ability of the teacher to be a significant predictor of student learning; this is a logical finding given the importance of verbal instruction in all classrooms, especially where instructional materials are scarce. The teacher's attitude about the instructional process will be affected by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Although in the developed nations teacher remuneration has begun to improve in real terms, many developing nations have declining levels of real wages for teachers. When low wages are combined with poor working conditions, the intrinsic incentives to remain an effective teacher can be overwhelming.

Teacher absenteeism is a critical concern in many nations. The issue of pupil/teacher ratios is less clear. Although research indicates that very small classes (fewer than fifteen students) can have learning advantages, the differences in learning achievement among larger classes are harder to identify. By 1985 developing nations had reduced average class sizes to a range of twenty-five to thirty-nine students per teacher, but it is unclear that this was a cost-effective policy for raising quality compared with policies emphasizing the availability of learning materials or innovative instructional technologies. And it is not obvious that reduced ratios have increased the actual amount of time pupils interact with the teacher. The major benefit of reducing *class size* apparently has been in improving teachers' working conditions; such policies thus may have increased teachers' motivation and kept them on the job longer, but the cost-effectiveness of achieving these results cannot be evaluated from available information.

**Box 4.07 Interactive Radio Instruction: US$1 per Student-Year**

Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI), an innovative use of broadcast radio for improving the quality of primary school education, is applied by teachers in Asia, Latin America and Africa. More than a half-million children worldwide are now learning through IRI.

During IRI lessons, children are asked to respond to the radio every few seconds by answering questions and performing spoken and written exercises. Subjects offered include mathematics, reading, English as a second language, reading and writing in Spanish, science and health. In Lesotho and Honduras the programmes are operating on a national scale, with more than 95 percent of schools participating. In the Dominican Republic, IRI is filling in where the difficult terrain has made it impossible to establish regular primary schools.

Does IRI improve student learning? Over the past 15 years, evaluations have consistently shown a strong impact on student achievement – even greater than gains produced by introducing textbooks or inservice teacher training. A typical result: in 1988, second grade children in Honduras using radio math programmes scored 66 percent correct on final exams, compared with 47 percent scored by children in traditional classes. What makes IRI effective? Its strength comes from a combination of excellent curriculum design and lessons based on proven educational principles – the most important of which is the active participation of children throughout the broadcast. The radio typically calls for 5 or 6 responses every minute. What does IRI cost? Annual recurrent costs typically range from 25 cents to one dollar per student.

The number of teachers is so large and their salaries represent such a high percentage of the educational budget that improving teacher quality in the short run is a difficult alternative in all but the wealthier nations. The linkage between teachers' salaries and general civil service regulations or standards is often underappreciated in attempts to improve school performance by increasing the prerequisite training of teachers. Increasing teachers' salaries is difficult in most countries without incurring general wage increases throughout the civil service, or at least among its professional staff. Nonmonetary incentives to recruit and retain teachers constitute a form of benefits which can be granted to teachers without the obligation of extending them to other civil service employees.

*The availability of educational materials* is one of the most powerful and consistent determinants of learning achievement; inequality in access to such materials is a major source of rural/urban and regional inequalities in achievement. Where teacher quality is poor, the value of instructional materials is even more important. Properly designed materials can help train unqualified teachers while providing instruction to students.

The critical concerns are the appropriateness of materials to the curriculum, their cost, and their dissemination. Language and cultural issues restrict the direct transfer of learning materials among and even within countries, but in the short run the adoption and adaptation of existing materials may be of value where local materials have not yet been developed. The issue of cost involves weighing the initial expense of producing or acquiring materials against their useful life expectancy. Low-cost materials may not be a bargain if they are not durable enough for extensive use in the classroom. Finally, dissemination must be a part of any consideration of the availability of materials as an indicator of school quality. Unless the instructional materials reach the classrooms they cannot be effective, and unless they reach all classrooms they cannot promote equitable learning opportunities.

The value of *buildings or equipment* as an indicator of quality is not as clearly supported by research as that of instructional materials (even though this assumed importance has been the basis for many external assistance programmes). There is not a consistent positive relationship between the availability of facilities or equipment and learning results.

However, there does appear to be a clear threshold of general availability and quality of facilities necessary for learning to take place. Equity may also be affected: provision of separate lavatory and toilet facilities for girls have been documented as an important determinant of female attendance. Also, overcrowding in primary schools, especially in the early grades, is a major source of poor achievement and attrition. In addition, some research indicates a correlation between special facilities, such as science laboratories, and achievement in specific domains of learning, but the correlations are consistently small and of questionable significance for policies toward primary schooling.

Although the availability of equipment is normally not a major indicator of quality in primary schooling, it becomes an important consideration when special technologies are used for instruction. Radios, film projectors, and tape recorders are now being supplemented in some nations by televisions, videocassette recorders, and computers. As with instructional materials, providing instructional equipment to some pupils but not all can be a source of learning inequality.

The results of research in North America on the effectiveness of schools, and observations of schools throughout the world, emphasize that *school and system administrators* are potentially critical in influencing instructional activities, in motivating teachers, and thus in determining school effectiveness. Greater decentralization that places more authority in the hands of teachers, the principal, the community (including parents), and local education officials can make an individual school more relevant and efficient through increasing its accountability. In decentralized systems, district and regional administrators usually continue to be the logistical link with national authorities but serve primarily as facilitators rather than implementors. Similarly, school principals and inspectors must be free to interact with teachers and students in ways that encourage learning rather than merely enforce policies. The principal or head teacher appears to have the greatest impact on school quality by establishing clear goals for individuals and creating a school climate conducive to learning achievement.

*Summary measures of inputs*, such as per pupil expenditure, dramatize a problem that exists for all analyses of inputs as indicators of quality. They represent the *availability*, but not the use, of a resource. Per pupil expenditure indicates only how much was spent, not the *quality or effectiveness* of the learning experience. Such measures may indicate whether enough resources are available but not whether they are being used well. All input measures, including those discussed here, suffer from this shortcoming which limits their relevance for policy. For countries that do not yet have even the minimal supply of inputs, however, these summary measures will be appropriate indicators of educational *efforts*, even if they are questionable proxies for quality.

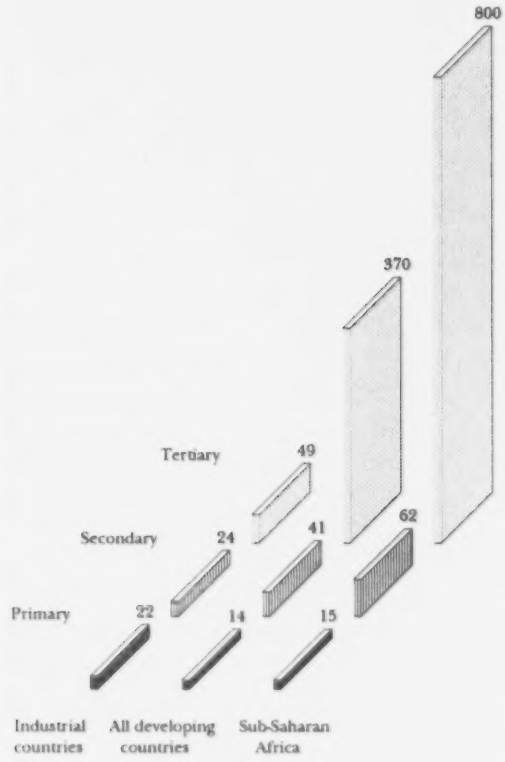
Improving quality by changing the *instructional process* is an ambitious endeavour. Many systems have very little information on how pupils and teachers use their time. As a minimum foundation for reform, it is necessary to know how much time teachers spend on their work and how they allocate their time among activities (preparation, instruction, review, evaluation, and remediation) and among various contacts with pupils (full class, subgroups, and individuals). Similarly, information is needed on the time pupils spend in contact with the teacher, other pupils, and instructional materials and equipment, including time devoted to homework. Analyses should refine these measures so as to estimate the time pupils actually devote to specific tasks or learning activities.

An accumulation of evidence indicates that learning achievement is proportional to the time spent in learning activities. Teacher and pupil absenteeism, holidays, and the needs of agricultural and other employment cycles are all sources of divergence between the official school year (averaging 180 days in most systems) and the effective learning time in school. In many developing nations pupil learning time is less than half of the 800-1000 hours a year that is common in developed nations. Thus, *less time* is available for access to *fewer resources*, so the learning disadvantage of pupils in the developing nations is compounded.

Differences in teacher-pupil interactions and pupil use of materials and equipment can create inequities even within a single class or school. A critical question is how teachers allocate their time in relation to disadvantaged learners – do such pupils receive more, less,

**Chart 6: Per Student Expenditure by Region**

Cost per student of different levels of public education as a percentage of GNP per capita in three country groups, early 1980s




Source: The World Bank.

or the same investment of teacher time and effort? The answer will tell a great deal about the efficiency and equity with which school resources are utilized. A special equity concern is the tendency, in some schools, for females to receive less attention from the teacher and to experience lower expectations in terms of their school performance.

Although measures of educational *outputs and outcomes* are a popular means of *assessing* school quality, they often are not considered a means for *improving* quality. In the case of school examinations, however, the psychometric properties that allow them to assess learning performance also determine both the correctness of the appraisal (its accuracy and relevance) and the propriety of allocating resources on the basis of examination results. Another measure of educational outputs is graduation from primary school, but if this is to guarantee possession of a necessary level of basic knowledge and skills (as defined by the official educational authorities), then the standards for graduation must be understandable and acceptable to the teachers who will have to apply them. If pupils are promoted automatically, graduation can become merely an indicator of age and perseverance, rather than evidence of learning. Graduation from primary school must provide the pupil with more than a certificate for employment and further education; it must also provide the prerequisite knowledge and skills for the graduate's continued learning and successful participation in the community and society.

To summarize, a systematic effort to improve school quality requires specification and measurement of the desired school outputs and identification of how the multiple inputs of the system interact within the learning process to produce the desired school outputs. The current understanding of these relationships suggests the following priorities for primary schooling reform: (1) improving the availability and use of instructional materials; (2) enhancing teacher effectiveness by emphasizing subject mastery, communication skills, and teacher motivation; (3) improving managerial skills, community and institutional structures, and individual and organizational incentives; and (4) increasing the time actually spent on learning. When these priorities are linked with improved preconditions for learning that enhance pupils' initial capacities, and with community environments that reinforce learning, true gains can be made in school quality and learning acquisition for all.

*(iii) Promoting equity*

As noted earlier, inequities most commonly relate to poverty, gender, location, religious, linguistic, or ethnic ientification, and physical or mental disability. *Poverty* creates inequity in learning in multiple ways. It is correlated with a low educational achievement of parents, poor nutrition and health care, inadequate

**Box 4.08 School-Based Management Comes to Dade County, USA**

School-Based Management (SBM) and its inherent philosophy of Shared Decision-Making (SDM) have been implemented in the Dade County Public Schools to give more power at the school site to principals and teachers so that they can do a more effective job in educating the children. Today, 119 out of 263 schools in the county are operating according to SBM/SDM, an additional five schools will be joining in the next grading period, and by the end of the year some 160 schools should be taking part. By August, 1991, SBM/SDM will, if present trends continue, be operative at every school in the county.

School-Based Management allows the local managers of the school to decide on school policy. Shared Decision-Making includes especially the teachers, but potentially the other school staff as well as parents and students. Although principals maintain final governance authority under SBM/SDM, teachers and principals together might decide upon staffing, budget, curriculum, scheduling, student activities, inservice training, and other matters. By placing authority at the school, the creativity and intelligence of teachers and principals can be given greater freedom to address the educational needs of the students. This experiment is a dramatic reversal of the "principal-proof" evaluation methods and "teacher-proof" curricula of the past.

Greater power for principals and teachers has resulted in greater enthusiasm. Many innovations have occurred in some SBM/SDM schools. Principals are allowing teachers to share in power which was previously closely held by the administration, and teachers are showing a newly reawakened sense of professional responsibility. They are even taking on the task of evaluating and counseling each other. Schools function more as teams, with a high level of communication between the team members, and with significant rewards available for team success and significant penalties certain for team failure. Elements of risk and entrepreneurship are being introduced into a profession known in the past for concern for security in employment and income.

There are many potential pitfalls in the movement toward SBM/SDM. Decentralization alone can lead to even wider disparities in school performance than those which already exist. Students from low-income families will suffer most. Centralization and decentralization must be blended in a new way which allows scope for school-level creativity, but keeps a coherent central focus for the District as a whole. Low-income, minority students in a particular school cannot be allowed to suffer under SBM/SDM simply because they have been saddled with an ineffective principal and teachers who are now given decision making authority.

intellectual stimulation for young children, a paucity of local nonschool learning opportunities, a reduced motivation for and benefit from schooling, and difficulty in absorbing learning expenses whether they be explicit fees or implicit opportunity costs. In country after country, studies have revealed that poverty affects both the ability of the family to support schooling and its willingness to bear the costs. Society's responsibility is to see that the children of these families, as well as poor orphans, receive an education appropriate to their needs and accurate information about the probable benefits of primary schooling. Other social investment programmes, including those that provide credit and generate employment, can complement the efforts to provide schooling by increasing the probable benefits to the poor who become educated.

*Gender* differences in participation were discussed earlier in the review of the status of basic learning. With the exception of Latin America, female rates of enrolment in primary schooling continue to lag behind those of males: the rates for six- to eleven-year-olds in Africa are 69 percent for males and 56.5 percent for females; in Asia the respective rates are 77.4 and 59.3 percent. The gap has actually widened since 1970 in Afghanistan, Nepal, and Pakistan, and in many other nations female enrolments remain very sensitive to economic or social disturbance.

As noted above, female pupils also often suffer from the negative attitudes of teachers

who underestimate girls' competence and from unsupportive family and community perceptions of the "appropriate" levels of education for women. Assignment policies that concentrate women teachers in urban and economically advantaged areas prevent many female pupils in other areas from having relevant role models and the teachers best able to appreciate the specific learning needs of girls.

In cultures where parents are reluctant to send girls to coeducational programmes, they may be educated in segregated schools or alternative systems such as those that instruct via radio or television. These alternative programmes are not available in all nations, however, and where available are mostly in urban settings. The debate over gender segregated schools versus coeducation is complex and influenced by social and cultural history and traditions. Even where special social provisions are made to educate females, family demand for a girl's household labour and a cultural emphasis on the early marriage of women can impede attempts to equalize opportunities.

For those females who gain access to and complete primary education, gender biases in instructional techniques, learning materials, and test designs further reduce the probability that their measured achievement will equal that of males. The results of the national comparisons undertaken by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement indicated that boys did better (especially in mathematics and science) at the primary school level; the difference was even greater at higher levels of schooling.

An immediate goal of primary education must be to minimize the gender differences in achievement as much as possible. Because of the special role of women in the intergenerational transfer of knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour, raising their learning achievement to equal that of males will enhance the efficiency of overall learning in society. Closing the historical gap between female and male learning achievement requires concerted, compensatory efforts, not simply an expansion of access for females.

*Locational* equity is a concern because of both rural/urban and regional differences in the quality of primary schooling in many countries. Because the presence of a school is the minimum condition for participation, the unequal distribution of schooling in a nation causes unequal access. According to one estimate, only half the rural children in most countries (and as few as 10 percent in some others) have the opportunity to complete four years or more of schooling. The barriers to learning attainment in rural areas include the limited quantity and poor quality of schools, poor reinforcement from the nonschool environment, irrelevance of the curriculum, high opportunity costs for children whose labour is needed at home, and long distances between the home and the school. Another disadvantage is that the language of instruction used in schools often differs from that used in the home. These disadvantages translate into differences in learning achievement, with pupils in urban schools scoring consistently higher except when the increased age or more frequent repetition of pupils in a rural or other disadvantaged area has an equalizing effect on measured achievement.

Few data exist on issues of *ethnic and religious disadvantage*. In some countries, a minority group is disadvantaged not so much because of its ethnic or religious identity as because it is poor and/or rural (e.g., isolated nomadic populations). The situation of castes in South Asia and indigenous populations in parts of Latin America and Southeast Asia, however, suggests that differences can emerge even when other determinants are the same. Special basic learning programmes may be necessary for these populations.

Ethnic and religious discrimination can operate either through formal practices favouring a privileged group or more informal biases in employment networks. Whether or not the discrimination is explicit, the negative effects soon will be: discrimination reduces the incentives for the disadvantaged children to participate in and benefit from the primary schooling system. Again, the immediate sacrifice of equity promotes a longer-term loss of societal efficiency.

Another major category of inequity is that of *disabled children and adults*. This group is a heterogeneous one with impairments ranging from mild or moderate to severe or profound; the more severely disabled are fewest in number. The needs of many disabled people can be met within existing services, as long as they are augmented by appropriate arrangements to support the special requirements of the

**Box 4.09 Techniques for Teaching and Learning**

Assuming that teachers enter the classroom eager to mold the minds of children, why do some do a poor or inadequate job? Among the probable causes: a lack of textbooks, low salaries, and the resultant discouragement that is possibly a factor in high rates of absenteeism. Moreover, the inadequately trained teacher is going to be the inadequate teacher, the one who instructs by rote – requiring students to copy from the board, recite in unison (sometimes in a little-understood language) or regurgitate answers without even understanding the point of what is being taught. All deaden the desire for knowledge that is so much a part of human makeup. Faced with a class of bored children, it is hardly surprising that teachers begin to go through the motions without any real enthusiasm or sense of commitment. Everybody loses: the child, who has been force-fed "facts", without any real sense of how they are applicable to the larger world, immediately or in the future, and the frustrated, defensive teacher. As many as 60 percent of students in some countries fail and have to repeat a grade.

There have been many attempts to improve teaching methods, but in-service teacher training programmes often deal only with the use of curricula or with educational theory, rather than offering instructional practice. Because teachers have been poorly trained, they leave even adult students to repeat and recite, instead of encouraging them to seek meaning in material and to gain insight into reasoning or context. The result is a poor transfer of knowledge from teachers who, themselves, may have learned by precisely the same arid methods.

Fortunately, research is helping teachers learn: it is now understood that, to be absorbed, information must be disassembled and then reshaped by the learner. The job of the teacher is to impose order on the material and to help the student extract meaning from it; then it can be connected with previous knowledge. Some facts, of course (multiplication tables) have to be learned so they can be applied to everyday life (buying food or selling goods, for example).

Research also shows that children can build on what they learn, provided that explicit, structured descriptions and demonstrations give them the techniques for doing so. Moreover, students need to know where and how to use what they learn.

Such programmes as Venezuela's Instrumental Enrichment successfully teach new learning strategies that are especially important in very poor countries with sparse instructional materials, large classes and outdated teaching methods. New techniques will have to be adapted to such areas as rural Sub-Saharan Africa, where both materials and methods are inadequate and they will have to be taught to teachers who are, themselves, poorly educated. Finally, they will have to be modified for use in various developing countries.

child and the family. There is a need to demystify educational provision for disabled persons; the main barriers continue to be misinformation about their capacities. This misinformation leads to a gross underestimation of their potential to benefit from education of all kinds. Even though many developing countries face shortages of financial and human resources, education for all means that *all groups*, including the disabled, are entitled to a fair share of resources. Whatever the current conditions, assisting disabled individuals to reach their learning potential should be a part of the strategies for meeting the basic learning needs of all. Developing countries considering action in the education of disabled children, youth and adults should have confidence in their own initiatives and should not feel that their efforts must follow those patterns established by the industrialized countries.

A special equity issue is that of *refugee populations*. These groups, suffering already from the dislocation and deprivation inherent in their refugee status, often face inequities because of other conditions. Refugees are usually poor; a majority are females; they often are located where self-sufficiency in agriculture or other employment is least probable; and their religious and ethnic ori-

**Box 4.10 Zambia — Providing Education for the Disabled: Beyond Rhetoric**

Zambia has demonstrated that commitment to the education of the disabled can go beyond rhetoric. The government officially recognized the educational needs of the disabled for the first time in its Second National Development Plan (1972-1976). In its Third National Development Plan (1977-1980), it made preservice and inservice teacher training and the establishment of new schools and units for disabled children a priority. In 1980 it simultaneously received assistance from Sweden for the creation of a sub-system for special education system and launched its National Campaign for Disabled Children.

The immediate objectives of the National Campaign were to raise public consciousness of the special needs of disabled children; to establish provincial registers of disabled children; to lay the foundations of nationwide health and educational services for disabled children; and to supply technical aids and prosthetic devices to as many disabled children as possible.

District Ascertainment Teams, comprising of a local primary school teacher, a medical assistant or nurse, and community development worker, were dispatched to identify disabled children and to design home-based intervention programmes. The nationwide campaign utilized 3,000 reporting centers in 57 districts. Ascertainment officers examined 11,000 children, identifying 7,247 as severely disabled. Of these, 3,209 were physically impaired; 1,549 visually impaired; 1,390 hearing impaired; 626 mentally retarded; and 473 multi-handicapped.

As the Ministry of Education was assuming responsibility for the education of the disabled, the University of Zambia added special education to its curriculum for the Associate Certificate in Education, and the National College for Teaching of the Handicapped was established in Lusaka, enrolling 69 students in its 1984-85 two-year programme. At the central level, a special education inspectorate has been established, with three special education inspectors devoted to staff development. As of 1985, there were 35 institutions serving 2,095 disabled students at the primary level, more than double the number served in 1980.

gins may differ from those of the host population. To meet the learning needs of these multiply disadvantaged individuals may require special programmes, alternative means of providing learning services, and new forms of financing. Refugees need an equitable share in basic learning opportunities and in their benefits.

*To reduce inequity*, whatever its source, requires an aggressive commitment on the part of government and society. Helping to incorporate presently disadvantaged populations into the larger society should be one of the explicit goals of primary schooling. No conflict need exist between equity and efficiency if goal attainment is defined explicitly in terms of the dimensions of equity. Achievement of equity goals requires specific interventions and acceptance of the reality that in the short run compensatory resources and measures may be necessary for certain groups to offset their disadvantages in the preconditions for, access to, completion of, and patterns in achievement in primary education.

Of all the problems of equity in primary education, *the participation and successful achievement of girls deserves the highest priority*. Removing the many barriers to primary education for girls will require a multifaceted approach. Countries need to address restrictive attitudes and beliefs about gender roles and capacities; adapt the education system, if necessary, through in-home instruction or separate schools for girls; provide day care for younger siblings and find other ways to reduce the family's need for girls' domestic labour; and improve learning achievement so that the benefits of primary education will offset the sacrifices imposed on the girl pupil and her family.

The special conditions of poor families may require assistance with the costs of school fees, uniforms, and transportation. Equity in rural areas may require flexible scheduling of the

**Box 4.11 Senegal: Incremental Reform and Improved Educational Efficiency**

Prior to the initiation of educational reform in 1981, Senegal's education system had a 6-4-3 structure topped by two-year and four-year programs at the University of Dakar. Fueled by rapid population growth of 3 percent per year, primary enrollments doubled in the decade of the 1970s. By 1985, the education budget accounted for 23 percent of the Government recurrent budget and 5 percent of GDP. Net enrollment rates were 39.6 percent for primary, 11.7 percent for lower secondary, 4.5 percent for upper secondary, and 2.0 percent for higher education. Community and family contributions accounted for only 3.5 percent of public educational expenditure and private schools represented only 6.1 percent of all educational expenditure.

In 1981 the Government created the "Commission Nationale de Reforme de l'Education" (CNREF) which submitted its reform proposals in 1984. Four major problem areas were identified:

- access and equity;
- fiscal constraints;
- low quality and low internal efficiency of primary education; and
- personnel shortages and inadequate training in management.

The proposals of the CNREF included introducing practical work into the curriculum; using national languages as a medium of instruction; promoting religious education; urging wider participation in the implementation of the reform; and upgrading the quality of teachers.

This educational reform was initiated against a backdrop of macroeconomic reform conducted within the structural adjustment begun in 1980. The adjustment program encouraged review of sectoral policies to ensure more efficient allocation and use of resources. Drawing on the work of the CNREF, the education reform effort (launched under the title of "Ecole Nouvelle") had four immediate objectives:

1. lowering unit costs in education through more efficient use of teachers and facilities;
2. reducing primary school construction costs;
3. containing educational expenditures at post-primary levels; and
4. limiting recurrent expenditures.

With assistance from a World Bank sectoral loan, the Government chose to implement this reform incrementally. This was done to operate within both the fiscal and managerial constraints of the educational system. A set of implementation steps were designed for the period 1985 to 1994. The phased structure of implementation has also allowed for a set of nine studies to support the implementation process.

The initial review of the reform efforts (in 1988) was favorable and identified progress in all areas except limitation of recurrent expenditures where the Government has yet to place a ceiling on growth rates for recurrent budgets. A noteworthy innovation has been the use of double-shift teaching in urban schools in grades 1 to 4. A review of these classrooms indicated no drop in quality although parents continued to perceive the program as sub-standard. Better social marketing and increased teacher and pupil familiarity with the system should improve both achievement and acceptance levels in the future.

The key lesson from Senegal is the combination of comprehensive reform with incremental implementation. In this manner, problems of dissemination could be identified and corrected before nationwide implementation occurred.

school year to minimize conflict with the agricultural planting and harvesting cycle. Sensitivity to special religious and cultural values, and the preservation and development of a people's cultural identity, may be necessary in dealing with ethnic and religious minorities. Disabled pupils and their families may require special help and alternative systems of instruction.

A different type of equity issue concerns out-of-school equivalents for primary schooling. If these "different but equal" pro-

**Box 4.12 Improving Teacher Quality through In-Service Training**

The role of teachers has long been recognized as central to the provision and quality of education. Research shows a strong relationship between teacher knowledge of subject matter, teaching style and student achievement. Moreover, recent pedagogical research highlights the importance of instructional time (amount and intensity of engagement in school learning), particularly in situations where students lack the instructional resources for independent learning. The positive effect of continuous in-service teacher training on teacher performance and subsequent student achievement has been demonstrated to be especially strong in developing countries. The enhanced confidence and professionalization emanating from in-service teacher training has additional motivational benefits in the face of restricted salary scales in many impoverished countries.

Three patterns for providing in-service teacher training stand out as being especially innovative and potentially efficient:

Distance training is typically part of a multifaceted system combining short and recurrent courses, fixed training center vacation courses, correspondence courses, radio, television and cassette courses, listening discussion groups, programmed instruction, and structured supervision. In Togo, radio and correspondence are combined. In the Philippines, daily radio and cassettes are supplemented by printed materials and periodic meetings of "teacher learning cells". Haiti has offered two-month initial intensive seminars followed by weekly radio programmes and monthly meetings.

The "ripple" or "echo" system is a cascading training model whereby a small group of trainers are trained, who in turn train a larger group, who then train still larger groups, and so on. This multiplier approach has been used extensively in East and South Asia to reach a maximum number of teachers in the shortest time period. Prototype training materials and highly structured supervisory systems are required to ensure uniform standards and quality of training content and processes.

Finally, the mobile team approach employs teams of tutors from teacher training colleges and curriculum centers acting as extension staff visiting neighboring schools to conduct short two to four-day intensive upgrading courses three to four times a year. This approach has been tried extensively in Indonesia and modified in the so-called "in-service, on-service model", which provides more frequent short course training in lead primary schools for organized groups of teachers in each school district. This latter approach relies more heavily on local supervisory personnel, existing schools, and established training centers rather than migratory staff.

Clearly, identifying and integrating elements of various approaches to the provision of in-service teacher training should be guided by local contextual factors. However, the common ingredients of academic preparation in subject matter, initial professional training as a basis for further in-service efforts, the use of multiple reinforcing instructional techniques, placing training close to school and classroom realities, and providing structured supervision, are all important to providing quality in-service teacher training.

grammes are to fulfill pupil expectations, standards of learning achievement must be the same as for the formal primary school system, and the credentials received must have the same value for both employment and access to further learning. Second-class or dead-end programmes cannot satisfy the need for equal learning opportunities and achievement; they simply substitute a new inequity for an old one.

Once equity is established as part of the efficiency goal, it is necessary to *measure the attainment of equity and to reward it*. Teachers and principals must be convinced that the nation has a true commitment to the equitable treatment of previously disadvantaged populations. Equity in meeting basic learning needs may come at a cost, but in the long run it will be a lower cost to society than the continuation of inequity.

**Box 4.13 Colombia: Escuela Nueva**

Following a 1978 study detailing major weaknesses in the provision of rural basic education, the Government of Colombia accorded top riority to improving schooling in rural areas and developed a comprehensive ten-year Rural Primary Education Plan, building heavily upon the Escuela Nueva programme launched in 1975 after a decade of experimentation.

Escuela Nueva considers the integration of the student, school, and community as crucial, not only to the school's effectiveness as a learning institution, but also to the community's assumption of responsibility for its own development. A Parents' Committee works together with the Student Council to develop joint school-community projects.

In addition to the school-community relationship, the programme focusses on curriculum, teacher training, and administration. Curriculum content is readily adaptable to the circumstances of a particular community and emphasizes problem-solving skills. To complement the curricular materials and to meet the challenges of multigrade teaching techniques, Escuela Nueva has developed a special classroom design based on resource corners, simple classroom furniture and a hundred-book library. Teachers are provided an initial 10-day training workshop on the programme's philosophy and content, teaching strategies, school organization, and student evaluation, with two followup workshops during the year. Supervisors undergo similar training with emphasis on the pedagogical aspects of supervision.

From 500 schools in 1976 in three departments, the programme's coverage extended to 3,000 schools by 1983 and 8,000 schools, or approximately 30 percent of the target schools, throughout the country by 1987. A recent evaluation shows that Escuela Nueva students have significantly higher levels of achievement than students in traditional schools. Student motivation, creativity, and self-esteem are higher; teachers have more positive attitudes toward teaching and are more involved in the community; parents express greater satisfaction; and due to the flexible promotion system, repetition rates are lower. Studies also show that supervisors see their jobs more positively with a stronger emphasis on providing support than merely overseeing school operations.

*(iv) Enhancing efficiency*

Efforts to improve efficiency in primary schools emphasize reducing costs without significantly altering the desired effects, or enhancing effectiveness without increasing costs. For example, programmes to produce low-cost, durable facilities expect to reduce expenditures on maintenance (though in any case these expenditures are often not realized because of lack of funds). The introduction of split shifts to increase the utilization of facilities is an appropriate way to enhance efficiency in locations with sufficient pupils to justify extra shifts. Similarly, literacy and other basic skill programmes can make use of primary school teachers, facilities, and appropriate materials when school is not in session and thus reduce the proportion of the cost of these resources that must be charged to primary schooling. While controversy exists about the practicality and effectiveness of all such proposals, alternatives to the current structure of primary education deserve consideration.

In many countries, and particularly in developed nations, there is an emerging "crisis" in teaching due, among other factors, to the perceived irrelevance of curricula and to the difficulty in recruiting good candidates to the profession. The task of the teacher has become increasingly complex and demanding; to fulfill this task, teachers must see themselves as *educators* and can no longer be satisfied with merely delivering a given body of knowledge. The teacher is a key contributor to improving the quality of education. Other institutions play co-ordinate roles: the family, the media, cultural institutions and others. Therefore, there is a need for nations to develop more coherent policies and plans to further improve teacher education and training (preservice and inservice) and to continue to seek ways and means to maximize the use of existing resources. There also is the need to

strengthen efforts to promote an integrated approach to preservice and inservice training programmes and to harmonize the training of teachers in the formal and non-formal systems. In addition, teachers have unique roles to play in research activities, instructional experimentation and in the development of evaluation mechanisms. The provision of teacher resource centres and learning materials is seriously deficient, and often lacking altogether, in almost all of the poorest countries. This seriously inhibits the motivation of teachers to continue their education. Also it often appears that not enough is done in the school environment itself to facilitate exchange of experiences among teachers, and to organize effectively the staff development of the teaching corps.

The local design and production of instructional materials were discussed earlier in regard to the issue of quality. The effectiveness of these activities in meeting the objectives for pupils' learning can be assessed only if these objectives are explicitly stated in the school curriculum. The systematic evaluation (including formal measurement) of learning gives feedback that allows assessment of the efficiency of teachers and instructional materials.

A special form of educational inefficiency is that described as "wastage" – this normally refers to the effect of pupils repeating a grade or dropping out of school. Since both actions increase the number of years of schooling provided relative to the number of graduates produced, such wastage is seen as synonymous with inefficiency. Ideally, with adequate preconditions for learning and schools of appropriate quality, neither attrition nor repetition should occur. In many nations, however, repetition and attrition result because enrolments have increased so much that schools are unable to benefit all pupils. Similarly, wastage can occur if schools do not have the time or resources to remedy learning disadvantages or to allow the slower learner's development to catch up with that of the other pupils.

If repetition resulted in increased achievement, it could be considered a pedagogically useful mechanism. However, the evidence shows that the achievement gains from repetition are minor, rarely cost-effective, and often promote lower self-esteem and an increased propensity to drop-out. Prevention of repetition through improved instruction and in-class remediation is often less expensive than accepting it as an unavoidable part of the education process.

The *control and governance* of primary schools raise questions of efficiency throughout the world. Because the central educational bureaucracies are geographically and administratively distant from individual schools and must base plans on a variety of aggregate measures, decision-makers may not be informed about the specific resources and needs of local communities. Central government authorities have a natural responsibility to initiate programmes, monitor school performance, and ensure the equitable provision of schooling among economically diverse settings. Many nations have recognized, however, that efficient management of schools requires involvement of the local community (including parents) and increased authority for the school principal.

With *decentralization*, the school remains accountable for its use of public funds and must continue to meet curricular standards and conform to general educational regulations. But the school can be given greater discretion on how to generate and utilize the resources for its learning activities. Research has found that individuals and communities are more willing to finance primary schooling when they participate in the decision-making concerning it. Thus, decentralization and local support can increase efficiency and mobilize new resources for schooling.

Many countries are examining new ways for private education and nongovernmental agencies to complement the existing primary school system. Regardless of the final set of partnerships or alliances developed, all nations will need to shift their priority concern away from the interests of the providers of schooling to those of the users: the pupils, the families, the community, and the nation. The interests of the providers cannot be ignored, but for the sake of efficiency, they must be considered only in the context of how to promote improved benefits for the users of the education system.

In the poorest nations, enhancing efficiency will help prevent the most dire consequences of domestic fiscal constraints and external

**Box 4.14 A Linguistic Renaissance in Senegal**

Senegal's Association for the Renaissance of Pulaar (ARP) shows how strongly people want to read and write the language they speak. A grassroots organization with a national board in Dakar and four dozen chapters throughout the country, ARP has no paid staff; its 5,000 members are an interesting amalgam of urban intellectuals educated in French and Arabic and those from rural areas who speak Pulaar but have never been to school. (In Senegal's complex linguistic environment, French is the official language of state, and six African languages, including Pulaar, are recognized as "national languages".)

At a time when the emphasis in literacy is still on people's ability to meet basic physical needs, two million people in Senegal who speak Pulaar are a valuable reminder of the importance of a sense of identity and community. Community is an especially vital issue to Africans who speak languages that cross national boundaries; from Senegal in the west to Sudan in the east, an estimated 13 million people speak Pulaar. Therefore, any literacy renaissance in Senegal could potentially affect a much larger population.

ARP's activities include open-air concerts with Pulaar musicians, taping of stories from a rich oral tradition, theatrical presentations, and radio programmes. As early as the mid-1960s, ARP recognized that literacy was essential to the continued vitality of the language; it encouraged literacy classes, which depended on local chapters for support and organization. With only minimal outside help, propelled by numerous students and volunteer teachers, the effort has been ARP's most outstanding activity.

Its success with literacy results in large part from the great importance of education and study to the culture of Pulaar speakers. ARP grew from the desire of civil servants to keep their language and culture alive and to bring the epic poetry of their ancestors into the world of their children.

debt burdens. In the more economically prosperou snations, efficiency measures can make the difference between an education system that degenerates into inadequacy and one that significantly promotes societal and individual development. Ultimately, efficiency reforms will be judged by what happens in a nation's classrooms and by the individual pupil's success or frustration in learning. The goal is for primary schooling to provide cognitive and noncognitive learning opportunities both efficiently and equitably, and to become a true human development activity that provides skills for individual success in life and resources for national development.

### D. Meeting the Basic Learning Needs of Youth and Adults

The basic learning needs of youth and adults are considered separately from those of children; not only is the target population older, but also the learning needs and the methods of meeting them differ. However, there may be a significant overlap in the *essential learning tools*. Literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem-solving will, in many countries, represent an important part of the curriculum for meeting the basic learning needs of certain youth and adults, as well as children. This is particularly true for those who did not attend primary schooling, who failed to complete the cycle, or who completed primary school but did not attain the necessary level of learning achievement.

Because of the complexity, diversity, and frequent incomparability of the forms of basic education for youth and adults, increasing the ability of planners and providers to diagnose, test, and evaluate learning activities is essential. The development of a diagnostic capacity in each country is necessary and should include not just identifying specific needs and means of meeting them, but also the interaction between the youth and adult programmes and earlier and subsequent learning activities of participants. Pilot testing of programmes and evaluation of their effectiveness must

include consideration of instructors, curriculum, materials, equipment and facilities, management, and costs and financing.

It is important to establish a clear distinction between *essential learning tools* and *basic learning content* for youth and adults. As noted above, the essential tools include literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem-solving, but may also encompass such other tools as computer operation, library use, and the ability to interpret messages relayed by radio, television, and emerging information systems. The tools defined as "essential" depend on each country's present context and expectations for development. The basic content will be even more varied and context-specific; it will cover the full range of knowledge and skills necessary for an effective life in one's community and larger society.

*Literacy* is a life skill and the primary learning tool for personal and community development and self-sufficiency in a rapidly changing and increasingly interdependent world. Over the last thirty years the definition of literacy and the design of literacy programmes have undergone dramatic change. Literacy is now seen as the foundation for life skills ranging from basic oral and written communication to the ability to solve complex scientific and social problems.

With this broadened definition of literacy, nations may need to change the way they think about and promote literacy. The idea of illiteracy as a disease that can simply be eradicated is outdated. Nor can illiteracy be used as a convenient label that implicitly blames "victims" for their own victimization. The new definition makes it clear that literacy is the primary enabling force for all further education. It is a uniquely effective tool for learning, for accessing and processing information, for creating new knowledge, and for participating in one's own culture and the emerging world culture.

*Basic learning content* is appropriately viewed as an array of knowledge and skills organized to meet the basic needs of learners, both as individuals and as actors in the contexts of the family, the work place, and the community. For example, basic knowledge and skills could address the need of the individual for self-esteem, knowledge of one's language and cultural heritage, and understanding of gender roles and social relationships. In the family and household sphere, there is the need to plan and manage a household and to raise healthy children, and, therefore, to know about health, nutrition, and infant stimulation and care. Learning needs relating to community life include knowledge about civic rights, a clean environment, and community organization and advocacy. Learning for the work place focusses on the skills required to earn a living and to adapt to changing economic and technological conditions.

Beyond training specifically for the home, the work place, or the community, basic knowledge and skills programmes need to enable people to develop the appropriate values, attitudes, and skills for critical thinking, creativity, and community problem-solving. In practice, literacy activities often are incorporated into larger training initiatives that provide knowledge or skills for youth and adults. The line between literacy and other basic knowledge and skills, therefore, is not always distinct – both are often broadly defined and provided to the learner in similar ways. In this sense, literacy is both a means to other knowledge and skills, and a knowledge/skill in itself.

Certain basic knowledge and skills (especially those affecting health, nutrition, child care, and some forms of labour productivity) can be provided before literacy is achieved. Where resources are sufficient, basic knowledge can be disseminated simultaneously with the teaching of literacy or other basic skills. Where literacy already exists, it will facilitate the transmission of this basic knowledge. But national authorities should recognize that literacy is not a precondition for the spread of some forms of basic knowledge and skills, however much it would be facilitated by literacy.

It can be argued that the literacy and basic education potential of the *new communication technologies* (and educational innovations) has never been fully realized. Many reasons have been put forward to explain this relative failure: inadequacy of investment, the inability to transform utilization habits to match a new teaching and learning environment, and an unwillingness to accept and apply the practical applications of change. Such concepts as the "information society" and the "global village", even if they are largely metaphorical, highlight the social and economic transformations that are taking place as a result of massive and

instantaneous information transfer, the increasing acceptance of information as possessing an economic, social and cultural value, and the consequent importance of information handling as a significant aspect of economic activity. Commentaries on social and economic disparities between (and within) societies now treat information availability and use as significant determinants of these disparities. As noted earlier, in some contexts these activities can be interpreted as representing a major educational channel, supplementing primary education and programmes for youth and adults to meet the basic learning needs of all.

At the very least, therefore, future understanding of literacy is likely to include media literacy as a functional skill important on several counts. In the first place, given the volume and variety of information now available from a wide variety of media sources, an ability to discriminate between media messages, and to evaluate both their objectivity and utility, is becoming a basic individual need. Secondly, the ability to operate and process information and communication technology may eventually rival traditional literacy and numeracy skills in determining the individual's ability to be effective in society.

These arguments have a number of implications, both for an expanded vision and for constructing appropriate policies and programmes. In relation to the informal learning that comes from the media, there is a need to know more about the degree, quality, and relevance of that learning, the processes through which it takes place, and the ways in which it can be channelled productively. This is not only a research question, but also implies a need to involve the information producers in the overall educational process, by acknowledging (and encouraging them to acknowledge) their impact and importance. There is a parallel need to build some elements of media literacy into basic education programmes, encouraging an understanding of how the media work and how they can be used and evaluated.

Such understanding comes most easily from practical contact: learning through doing. This practical contact also helps build up the functional skills in handling information and communication technology, upon which vocational effectiveness is becoming more dependent. It extends well beyond technical competence, embracing the development of a full range of communication abilities in the individual.

At another level of education and development programming, a new and innovative programme of research is necessary if planned applications of communication are to become more effective. If educational technology has in the past been an ineffective, or only partially effective, instrument of change, a better knowledge of the reasons for this is needed.

The definition of literacy and the need for basic knowledge and skills evolve along with social, economic, and cultural change. As a result, all individuals continue to face new learning challenges throughout their lives. In the end, literacy – whether oral, written, computer, or scientific – is evolving to meet many diverse and changing needs. No fixed set of information or competencies defines basic knowledge and skills for all countries. Thus, the question for each country is how best to define and provide the literacy and basic knowledge and skills appropriate to each individual and community and how to devise mechanisms that improve the scope, relevance, and quality of the essential learning tools and content.

*(i) Content and relevance*

The content and relevance of basic education for youth and adults depends on the *fit between policies and programmes and the context and needs* in which the learning activities take place. Since that context is always changing, the learning process must be continuous and learning activities designed to take account of the changing context. In the final analysis, the dissemination of literacy and basic knowledge and skills takes place within the more complex activities of technological and political development. Although some may assert that the larger goals of development can be achieved without meeting the basic learning needs of youth and adults, the existing evidence suggests that teaching literacy and basic knowledge and skills is among the most cost-effective means of promoting a synergistic development effort. Improving health and nutrition, controlling population growth, and increasing production can be achieved concurrently with the benefits of human

**Box 4.15 Modern Communication for Family Life Education**

Education in the 20th century is being reshaped by the interaction between modern communications and the growing understanding of how knowledge, behaviour, and human health are inter-related. For the first time in history, technology reaches millions in a single moment, and it is possible to educate people to prevent or treat disease. Changing attitudes to lifestyle diseases have sensitized society to a new kind of education that strengthens schools, clinics, and hospitals and empowers people to a degree never before imagined.

Diseases related to lifestyle decisions are among the most expensive and deadly killers in the world, accounting for the vast majority of health care costs, premature death, and disease morbidity. Each can be altered by knowledge and, to that degree, is linked to education. For example:

- Approximately 3,000 children die each year of diseases for which immunization exists. A four dosage immunization cycle administered prior to a child's first birthday could be a life saver. But mothers have to know that services exist and how to gain access to them. Educational communications can help them do just that.
- Scientists in the United States estimate that 70 to 80 percent of cancer deaths in that country are linked to behaviour that could by changed by education.
- Five to ten million people are estimated to be infected with the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) associated with AIDS. The only known cure at present is prevention: people learning what the virus is, how it is transmitted, and altering their behaviour accordingly.

Effective educational communication stresses facts and skills development; it motivates people to want to change their own behaviour. Evidence that it does so is based on scientific research from various disciplines and professions. For example:

- Large-scale surveys in Honduras show that use of a specific oral rehydration solution to treat diarrheal dehydration went from zero to 40 percent of all episodes of diarrhea, just one year after a systematic programme of public education was launched.
- Condom sales in India increased from fewer than 25 million in the late 1960s to more then 160 million in 1979, and 75 percent of the increase was accounted for by a new brand introduced through a marketing approach that relied heavily on consumer education.

It is estimated that more than 16,000 radio stations and more than one billion radio receivers are in operation around the globe. Television is now found in every nation on earth; in India, Brazil, and the Middle East viewership has expanded as the result of three decades of creative rural programming. In Europe and North America, powerful health messages compete successfully with entertainment programming to educate people about the environment and about AIDS, cancer, and other diseases. Thanks to satellite transmission, video recording, durable transistors, miniaturization, and a vast supply of batteries, people in even the poorest villages access to a wealth of information.

A revolution in programming technology has expanded opportunities to teach and persuade: in Mexico, a rock video motivates adolescents to delay sexual activity; a lottery in The Gambia teaches thousands of rural women about a new remedy for diarrhea, and a mass campaign in Turkey increases immunization coverage. Listening groups, public service announcements, interactive radio in schools, mass mobilization campaigns, educational soap operas, rock videos, and instructional cassettes are only a few of the new mass education technologies emerging around the world.

Health professionals have learned to *involve audiences* in programme design, to *target messages* to specific kinds of behaviour, to *integrate* mass media and interpersonal support, and to *mobilize health services* to meet increased demand. Wherever behaviour inhibits human progress, mass education is now a powerful tool for health and learning.

**Box 4.16 The Impact of Technological Change on Basic Learning Needs**

New technologies are sweeping the globe, entering factories, offices, hospitals, and homes. Young people are maturing into rapidly transforming workplaces for which traditional cultural guides (e.g. parents and teachers) are perceived as less and less expert. Widespread changes are evident in occupational structures, such as manufacturing to service sector shifts and differences in job types and skills requirements. Both upgrading and downgrading of skill requirements are reported in the literature. Certain groups, women in particular, are highly vulnerable to displacement and other negative consequences of change in rural as well as urban areas.

Education is of course not isolated from these forces. Merely drilling young people (or adults) with facts for the purpose of passing selective examinations is unacceptable, when perfect recall of 'knowns' becomes less useful in life than making pragmatic, probabilistic guesses about 'unknowns'. Instabilities in the societal context for learning thus suggest the need for a gravitational shift towards adaptability and 'localization' in the acquisition of knowledge and skills, and more attention to the various applications of acquired competencies. Science and technology must be demystified early in the learning experience. Conceptual separation between teacher and student will become blurred, since teachers will increasingly acknowledge without embarrassment that they are learning too. Basic education must be the foundation for building knowledge and skills, either to exit directly into workforce activity, or to continue on for further education.

At the most basic levels of education, young people and adults should acquire the ability to think. Not only must they learn to adapt successfully to a changing world, but they also must be prepared to contribute creatively to that change. As a means of enhancing quality in basic education, The Korean Educational Development Institute has designed and is introducing into primary and secondary schools a 'teaching for thinking' method which focuses explicitly on the acquisition of intellectual skills as the core of the curriculum. The Thinking Ability Project was launched in 1987, and by 1992 expects to have conceptualized, field tested and fully evaluated (using an experimental design) the approach in Korean schools. Distinguishing between different types of cognitive dimensions (e.g. critical, creative) the method 'unpacks' the problem-solving process, and provides a pedagogy for the successive stages of problem selection, problem analysis, solution evaluation and solution implementation.

Human Resource Development (HRD) will be the key to closing the growing gaps between (and within) countries in their ability to access, as well as fully utilize, the new technologies. However, in many countries, the basic diagnostic elements to detect and track technology-induced movements/alterations in employment structures and social behaviour are rudimentary or non-existent. Yet intelligent HRD policies should be able to rely on such information without reliance on external expertise. This indigenous diagnostic capability can be strengthened, and made responsive to the needs of planners and policy-makers. In addition, programmes constructed to meet basic learning needs should traverse traditional literacy and numeracy towards 'operacy' so that skills and knowledge become operational or functional in relation to the cultural and contextual demands of specific settings.

development that such basic learning promotes directly.

Like other basic education programmes, those for youth and adults must be relevant to their needs. If their real learning needs are not met, there is neither purpose to, nor benefit from, such programmes. The measurement of relevance is limited in two significant ways, however. First, the external effects of literacy and basic knowledge and skills programmes cannot be easily evaluated. Multiple factors influencing the lives of learners make it difficult to establish direct relationships between such learning programmes and their outcomes. At times the most economical and reliable measures of the external effective-

**Box 4.17 Literacy Motivation: Learning to Fly**

People become literate for economic, political, social, and very personal reasons; in a village literacy centre in Haiti, a grandmother smiles wistfully and says, "My children live far away and I want to learn to write so that I can tell them my secrets . . . " A young woman, her face glowing with pride, remarks, "I want to get a good job someday." A thin wiry man raises his hand and says, firmly, "I come here because of what happened in the Duvalier regime. If I learn to read and write, that kind of government will not be able to return". The literacy monitor asks another person who, hesitating for a moment, answers, "So that my wife and I . . . well, so that we will be able to take a step forward together in life". On the other side of the room his wife grins broadly: everyone in the class knows *she* was responsible for bringing him here.

Learners in Nicaragua have similar reasons. Asked why he wants to learn, a grandfather waves his arm at his grandchildren: "To be an example". One of his daughters searches for the right words, "So when I go to market I won't be cheated ever again", she says. Her husband smiles at the labouriously printed letters on the page before him: "To defend myself, to learn about farming, and so I never have to suffer humiliation like before when they made me use my thumb to sign papers. Now", he says triumphantly, "I can write my own name for all to see".

Asked the same question, a child pauses and, after a moment, looks up shyly. "So someday . . . well, someday . . . so maybe I can learn how . . . to fly."

ness of these programmes are participants' own reports of whether they have gained useful knowledge or skills; in the longer term, tracer studies have a substantial contribution to make to the assessment of external relevance.

Second, in the special case of literacy, relevance is not limited to external effects or outcomes. In a real and powerful sense the acquisition of literacy has "intrinsic relevance." By itself, it enhances a sense of self-worth and efficacy, which in turn makes a person better able to initiate and adapt to change, to take risks, and to participate actively in social, economic, and political development. Literacy in the mother-tongue further contributes to a sense of cultural identity.

The importance of *public information* in meeting basic needs is shown in several examples. Last year, some 3 million children under the age of five are estimated to have died from diarrheal dehydration in developing countries. At least 50 percent of these deaths could have been avoided if parents or caregivers had the simple knowledge of how to counter diarrhea successfully in the home. Other studies show that babies in developing countries born more than two years after their next older sibling are twice as likely to survive as babies born after a shorter interval. In Australia, a dramatic education campaign used pamphlets, advertisements, and other mass media to increase awareness of AIDS. Later an evaluation showed that 44 percent of the adult population had changed their attitudes or behaviour toward AIDS. In a larger context, environmentalists warn that the very survival of our planet is rapidly becoming an issue of public education through information dissemination.

The continuing *industrial and technological revolution* affects the basic knowledge and skill formation of youth and adults by changing the nature of its relevance. With the evolving structure and operation of labour markets and the rapid adoption of new technologies throughout the world, workers will have to be able to shift constantly from one machine to another, from one method to another, and from one work environment to another. The close connection between the generation and utilization of technology argues for increasing the relevance of training by linking it with actual production activities. Successful strategies for reducing youth unemployment increasingly blur the line between training and

employment, learning and production. In many settings, in both developed and developing nations, training programmes conducted by employers may have to continue emphasizing essential knowledge and skills – literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving tools – that, in principle, should have been learned at school. Thus employers become trainers and educators as well.

Pre-employment training in specific vocational skills increasingly is recognized as insufficient for successful employment. As more and more skills are specific to a single occupation or employer, the relevance of pre-employment programmes will cease to be defined in terms of an exact fit between training and an occupation. Instead, there will be more concern with assuring the future *trainability* of workers, or equipping them with the basic knowledge and skills that define capacity and adaptability, rather than to fulfill the requirements of narrow job descriptions.

In the informal sector, on-the-job training, apprenticeship, and training with production are already common and compete with the vocational training offered in many schools and institutes. Even where generic pre-employment skill training is necessary, it no longer will be sufficient preparation for employment. No matter how well prepared the initial entrants are, occupations evolve, often during a single working life, and technological change keeps requiring new and expanded knowledge and skills.

*(ii) Programmes and quality*

The quality of a programme to meet the basic learning needs of youth and adults has multiple indicators similar to those discussed earlier for primary education: (1) learner characteristics; (2) learning inputs; (3) learning processes; and (4) learning outputs and outcomes. In fact, many of the research findings concerning the quality of primary education also apply to basic learning programmes for youth and adults. Examples are the critical importance of the instructor's qualifications and the great potential for learning materials to contribute to learning effectiveness.

There are, however, some distinctive aspects to providing learning for youth and adults. For example, *motivation* is even more critical in a noncompulsory programme – motivation to join, to continue, and to succeed. The motivation of youth and adult learners will depend on the actual relevance of the learning opportunity and the effectiveness with which this relevance is communicated to the potential learners.

*The variation of age and experience* among adult learners is a second characteristic that must be taken into account in the design and scheduling of learning opportunities. Programmes should not underestimate either the sophistication of youth and adult learners or their ability to make practical choices about joining or persisting in learning activities. Variety and flexibility are necessary if programmes are to match the mix of learning capacities and needs of this population.

*Learning inputs* for these programmes will focus on the instructor and on learning materials. Learners who are already literate, however, may be able to use instructional materials in the absence of a teacher or to extend on their own the learning provided by a teacher. Equipment is likely to be a more important input here than in primary education, especially for mechanical and related skills training. The media and public information systems can be expected to play even more significant roles in promoting behavioural change for this population than was the case in primary education.

Evaluations of programmes that use a variety of pedagogical techniques suggest that the most effective curricula and materials are learner-centred, participatory, and relevant to local needs and aspirations. The programmes that achieve the most tend to present their content in conformance with accepted learning theory, in an entertaining and interesting fashion, and in accordance with the competencies of instructors and the resources available for training. Materials and methods for teaching literacy and basic knowledge and skills work best when they appeal to all the stakeholders – learners, instructors, families, communities, implementing agencies, and governments.

Teachers/Instructors will remain central to many youth and adult basic learning activities. The subject mastery, verbal ability, and attitudes that make successful schoolteachers also will be positive factors in these settings.

Effective teachers/instructors of literacy and basic knowledge and skills share the char-

acteristics of high-quality curriculum and materials: they are appropriate to the learners and their environment. Those recruited from other socio-economic and cultural contexts to work with pre-literates normally are burdened with preconceptions that have to be "unlearned" and often are never overcome. Also, when primary education teachers are used in programmes for youth and adults, they may need special training to sensitize them to the different needs of older learners and how to meet those needs. A reciprocal benefit can occur in that working in the learner-centred orientation of programmes for youth and adults may help these teachers be more responsive to pupil needs when they return to primary school classrooms.

It is important to recognize the need for recurrent training of teachers/instructors to enable them to deal with different learners, evolving learning needs, and content levels that also change rapidly over time. One should not underestimate the significance of appropriate wages, benefits, rank, and recognition for nonschool-based educators. In fact, the myth that literacy efforts can succeed with volunteer and part-time, underpaid instructors alone has become a major excuse for government underfunding and a dominant liability of many programmes.

The proper management of youth and adult learning activities is an especially important consideration for programme quality. Management issues apply over the entire administration of learning: from the design and implementation of local programmes to the national establishment of standards. Because of the diversity of this second channel of basic education, the monitoring and evaluation functions of management are paramount. The lack of analytical research and comparable experiences emphasizes the need for more documentation on basic education activities for these age groups.

The instructional process for young and adult learners is a topic of considerable controversy. The question of the appropriate psychological and pedagogical models to apply to this population has not been resolved. Some agreement exists, however, on the critical role of *learner time utilization*. On the one hand, although the time spent on any given learning task may vary among learners, each learner can be seen to improve dramatically as the time-on-task increases. On the other hand, the timing of learning activities is essential as the high opportunity costs of youth and adult learners impose often severe demands for the efficient use of learner time.

Instructional methods used in programmes for youth and adults abound – functional, Freirian, intergenerational, whole language, psycholinguistic, and others – but no single approach or method of instruction has been shown to work in all situations without adaptation to the local culture, context, language, and learning needs. Although existing models can offer a point of departure and comparison, the key to achieving successful learning is to use a method that is adapted to the situation. It should be accompanied by systematic monitoring and evaluation to profit from experience and thus deter the waste of scarce educational resources.

*Measures of the outcome and output* of basic learning activities for youth and adults will be extremely varied. Standard measures of learning may be appropriate for some literacy activities and for skill training programmes that are comparable in content. However, many learning opportunities will not be comparable because they differ in context, content, and participants.

*Follow-up* to these basic learning activities has been shown to be essential. In the long term, programme quality is revealed by how frequently and appropriately learners are able to use their new knowledge and skills. Thus, monitoring of outputs and outcomes will have to consider the post-learning supports provided to the learner.

In summary, the quality of basic learning programmes for youth and adults is an even more complex issue than in the case of primary education. Usually, adult education does not have the benefit of a large supervisory system or a long tradition to direct the focus on quality. Although the management and supervisory system of primary education does not always perform effectively, the first channel of basic learning does have the advantage of an organizational foundation on which to build. In youth and adult programmes, planning and management activities must incorporate quality considerations by developing better data bases, appropriate diagnostic and analytical skills, and management capacity.

*(iii) Effects and equity*

The inequities in programmes for youth and adults originate from two sources: (1) the residual inequities created because an acceptable quality of primary education is not universally available, and (2) inequities within the supply of learning opportunities for youth and adults. The second source is especially critical since youth and adult learning opportunities can either compensate for earlier inequities or reinforce and exacerbate them. Inequities can worsen, even though such programmes attempt to equalize learning opportunities for those who have gained less benefit from primary education than others.

Inequities in youth and adult programmes are related to the same characteristics of individuals as in the case of primary education: poverty, gender, location, religious or ethnic identification, and physical or mental disability. A special characteristic to be considered, however, is age. Given the accumulation of learning needs in the population over time, it may not be realistic to expect every nation to meet immediately even the basic knowledge requirements of all of its adults. Some societies have made implicit choices about the age groups that will be given priority; these decisions have direct implications for equity among age cohorts.

One quantitative indicator of inequity in learning is the literacy rate. Clearly, the greatest number of illiterates is in Asia, particularly China and India, while the highest rates of illiteracy are in Africa, especially the Sahelian nations. Consistently, women are disproportionately represented in these numbers. A majority of the world's illiterates, female and male, live in rural areas or urban slums, impoverished and marginal members of their societies.

Both the proportion of a population that is illiterate and the large absolute number of illiterates must be considered in targeting literacy efforts; illiteracy has serious consequences for national economic well-being because of both the *relative* and *absolute* burden it imposes (see Table 5). In 1990 there will be an estimated 882 million adults (fifteen years and over) who are illiterate, 27.7 percent of the world's adult population. Nearly 98 percent of the world's illiterates will live in developing countries. Asia will remain the heart of the problem with about 659 million illiterates; Africa will have about 165 million, and Latin America and the Caribbean region 42 million. North America and Europe will have only about 17 million illiterates, but the position of these individuals is particularly disadvantageous in relation to the basic learning needs of their societies.

There is no statistic comparable to the literacy rate that indicates how many people lack basic knowledge and skills. It may be inferred, however, that given changing demographics, increased instructional provision, and the variable standards by which literacy is measured throughout the world, the problem of aggregate illiteracy may, indeed, be actually shrinking, whereas the number of semiliterates and those lacking basic knowledge and skills is increasing.

The increasing number of individuals with unmet basic learning needs, alongside scarce resources and an inadequate capacity to implement programmes, suggests that some decisions must be made concerning who will benefit first from renewed efforts to disseminate literacy and basic knowledge and skills. As discussed earlier, strong arguments exist for *giving women highest priority*. This precedence is justified by their history of being educationally underserved, by their economic contributions to agriculture and industry, and by their influential role as mothers and often heads of single-parent households. One proverb notes, "When you educate a mother, you teach a nation." Their strong *intergenerational effects* as care-givers, their immediate effects on child health and family planning, their crucial role in food production and trade in many agrarian societies, and the rapidly changing nature of their societal roles place women in a pivotal position to enhance the well-being of their families and communities.

Meeting equity goals for women and other underserved groups does not depend solely on provision of services. In the past, adult education programmes, particularly skill training activities, implicitly have endorsed traditional male conceptions of female roles and vocations. This limits female contributions by closing access to training in non-traditional occupational roles for women. In many instances men have monopolized training opportunities, although women actually predominate in the occupations for which

**Table 5 Numbers and Rates of Illiterates Aged 15+, 1985**

A. Countries with more than 10 million illiterates

| Country | *Illiteracy rate (1985) (%)* | *No. of illiterates ('000)* | *Proportion of world total* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | *(%)* | *(Cum. %)* |
| India | 56.5 | 263,609 | 29.7 | 29.7 |
| China | 30.7 | 229,175 | 25.8 | 55.5 |
| Pakistan | 70.4 | 39,408 | 4.4 | 59.9 |
| Bangladesh | 66.9 | 37,274 | 4.2 | 64.1 |
| Nigeria | 57.6 | 27,429 | 3.0 | 67.1 |
| Indonesia | 25.9 | 26,438 | 2.9 | 70.0 |
| Brazil | 22.3 | 19,085 | 2.1 | 72.1 |
| Egypt | 55.5 | 16,053 | 1.8 | 73.9 |
| Iran | 49.2 | 11,995 | 1.3 | 75.2 |
| World total | 100.0 | 890,466 | | |
| Sub-total (9 Countries) | 75.2 | 670,466 | | |
| Other countries | 24.8 | 220,000 | | |

B. Countries with illiteracy rates 70% or higher

| Country | *Illiteracy rate (1985) (%)* | *No. of illiterates ('000)* | *Female illiteracy rate* | *Male illiteracy rate* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Somalia | 88.4 | 2,771 | 93.5 | 81.6 |
| Burkina Faso | 86.8 | 3,776 | 93.9 | 79.3 |
| Yemen, PDR | 86.3 | 3,090 | 96.9 | 73.1 |
| Niger | 86.1 | 2,815 | 91.4 | 80.6 |
| Mali | 83.2 | 3,604 | 89.0 | 77.1 |
| Afghanistan | 76.3 | 7,605 | 92.2 | 61.1 |
| Gambia | 74.9 | 285 | 84.9 | 64.4 |
| Chad | 74.7 | 2,146 | 89.1 | 59.5 |
| Nepal | 74.4 | 2,892 | 88.1 | 61.3 |
| Benin | 74.1 | 1,630 | 84.3 | 63.3 |
| Senegal | 71.9 | 2,565 | 80.9 | 62.6 |
| Guinea | 71.7 | 2,297 | 82.8 | 60.3 |
| Sierra Leone | 70.7 | 1,568 | 78.7 | 62.2 |
| Pakistan | 70.4 | 39,408 | 81.4 | 60.1 |

Source: UNESCO.

training is provided. Agriculture extension and small scale enterprise development provide two examples of such gender bias in adult knowledge and skills development. Not only are women often unable to get the training they need, they frequently cannot obtain the credit, land titles, and other assets required to complement the training and improve their overall resource base and productivity. Fortunately, many training programmes are now emerging specifically for girls and women, in which the content is explicitly linked to modern sector occupations.

Programmes to meet the basic learning needs of youth and adults, if they are also to succeed in meeting their equity objectives, must take into account the barriers to participation in learning and to the productive use of learning. Learning inequities exist within a context of social inequities; both must be

**Box 4.18 TOTOTO Home Industries**

When the Mkwiro Women's Group decided to start a boat service from their island off the southern coast of Kenya to the mainland, they wanted to earn money for community development projects and to provide transportation to the health clinic that served their children. Four years later, the ferry was still afloat, but the business was sinking.

Tototo Home Industries, a nongovernmental organization in Mombasa, was ready to help the women keep both boat and business running. Women in Mkwiro, and in 46 other groups along the coast of Kenya, had already received training in group organizing from Tototo's Rural Development Program. Now Tototo would train them and offer technical assistance in business management.

Organized in the early 1960s by the National Council of Churches in Kenya, Tototo initially marketed handicrafts produced by women in the town of Mombasa; in 1986, a new director saw that this did virtually nothing to change the quality of rural women's lives. She began to work with them on community development and income generation. By 1987, Tototo's community development programme had reached more than 1,200 women within a 200 kilometre radius of Mombasa, offering training in group organizing and leadership, a revolving fund for loans, assistance in health and family planning, and a savings club.

According to a 1985 study, the businesses established by the groups were barely viable; as in Mkwiro, groups lacked the skills to maintain them or the ability to work creatively within the economic, social, and cultural constraints imposed on them as women.

Based on these findings and on Tototo's experience with women's groups, as well as on anthropological research into the groups and the barriers they face, Tototo created a business management training program; it enables women to translate knowledge of household enterprises into the basic practices needed to operate a group business. One key was a pictorial accounting system that allowed nonliterate members to read project accounts and understand the allocation of dividends. The new accounting system permits the women of Mkwiro to track their actual expenses and to allocate profit more effectively; as both business performance and dividends improve, the women tackle other projects for community development.

Tototo staff began working with eight groups in 1986; the women of Mkwiro were selected for training in 1987. Research shows the effectiveness of training: on average, dividends in the 1986 groups increased 500 percent from the first to the second year of training, while gross revenues doubled. Those groups paid an average of US$700 in dividends to their members in 1986 and more than US$3,300 in 1987. Although the 1987 groups did not experience such dramatic increases, their gross revenues and dividends have improved significantly. Tototo has now begun to teach its training programme to agents in Swaziland and Malawi.

changed. To redress inequities will require initiatives to:

- Expand the number and size of programmes to provide more learning opportunities
- Establish priorities for the participation of presently underserved or disadvantaged persons and groups
- Take special measures to ensure that these priorities are fulfilled.

The third initiative recognizes that the specific groups may require special content, alternative methods, and special incentives to ensure that they not only join basic learning programmes, but also continue until they achieve the necessary level of learning.

*(iv) Monitoring and efficiency*

Efficiency issues have not been addressed adequately in many analyses of youth and adult programmes, in part because of the small size, noncomparability, and volunteer nature of many of these activities. Also, since such programmes do not normally represent a significant share of public expenditure, they

**Box 4.19 Adult Education in China**

China's system of educating adults is – like China itself – diverse: programmes are run in state and local government schools, but also through other government agencies and by organizations, social groups, and individuals. They include basic education for workers with little schooling; specialized secondary-level and other higher education that meets the requirements for formal academic qualification; on-the-job training; classes that keep workers abreast of changing production conditions or that simply enrich them personally.

The chance to learn takes many forms: classroom lessons, instruction by radio, television or through correspondence programs; there is even an examination system for those who are self-taught. Almost all students attend only part-time: of the more than 500 million potential participants in adult education, 350 million are young and middle-aged farmers, 90 million work in township and village enterprises, and 130 million are urban workers.

In the past decade, adult education, especially for farmers, has developed rapidly as part of the overall expansion of education in China. In 1987, there were 1,399 colleges of various types with 1.86 million adult students, while 1.65 million students attended 4,742 specialized secondary schools. Educational television began in October 1986, and China now has a total of 577 television "universities" at the university, provincial, prefectural and municipal levels; 179,000 students graduated from them in 1987.

Adult education in China will gradually focus on training people in specific skills before they enter the labour market. Certificates will be awarded to those who attain a level of academic education; who complete work in a single subject up to a given level; or who have knowledge of a specific job. Even now education certificates are recognized in job recruitment and promotion.

While sheer size and diversity make it difficult to get an accurate picture of total expenditures on adult education in China, it is reasonable to estimate that, in 1987, the total, excluding private costs, amounted to some 7.48 billion yuan (approximately US$2 billion), or about 0.6 percent of the country's GNP.

usually have not been monitored and held accountable to the same extent as larger, formal education programmes.

In the past, many countries have seen literacy programmes, particularly national literacy campaigns, as having political goals and have used them to consolidate national identity or demonstrate government concern. Others, in contrast, have viewed literacy and basic knowledge and skill training for youth and adults as part of a comprehensive educational system to prepare people for employment and civic responsibility. The former approach tends to focus on a certain time frame and specific targets for the participants, while the latter endeavours to develop institutions and skilled personnel capable of designing and implementing enduring literacy and basic skills programmes. Both approaches have merit; neither is ideal.

The process of meeting basic learning needs can encompass both approaches. Intensive national *campaigns* can provide literacy and basic knowledge and skills education to large numbers of people within a short time. The institution-building approach develops institutional capacities and competent staff that in the longer term can assess and meet the multiple basic learning needs that are emerging. Even when conventional educational institutions can provide basic literacy to all, there will be a continuing need for basic knowledge and skills training. A nation's effort is, and must inevitably be, pluralistic to reflect the diversity and changing nature of needs and the alternative means of meeting these needs in every society.

Experience in the provision of basic learning for youth and adults suggests that the design of an efficient programme will:

- Identify priority populations and learning needs
- Mobilize demand by potential participants

**Box 4.20 Trinidad and Tobago: Government-NGO Partnership for Basic Education**

The partnership between the Ministry of Education and SERVOL in Trinidad and Tobago in providing basic education services is generating much interest among other Caribbean Governments who are looking at possible adaptations in their countries. Servol is a voluntary organization involved in non-formal education and community development programmes, seeking to promote self-reliance and to give youth and community groups a sense of power over their own lives and a sense of hope in the future.

In 1986, the Ministry of Education of Trinidad and Tobago, entered into a partnership with SERVOL, in establishing a National Programme of Early Childhood and Adolescent Training. The SERVOL methodology and philosophy was used as a basis for both programmes. The programmes had to be requested by the communities and not imposed from without. Advertisements drew large numbers of people to meetings which explained that the project was a joint venture between:

- The community, which would need to set up a village board of education to monitor the project and provide a suitable structure to house it;
- The Ministry of Education, which would pay the salaries of teachers, instructors, and field officers;
- Overseas foundations, which would give grants for training and equipment; and;
- SERVOL, would do all the training, and supervise the entire project, and access additional funds from various sources.

Two basic non-formal programmes have been developed: an Early Childhood Education Programme for children 0-5 years and an Adolescent Development Programme for youths 16-19 years. By September 1990, the Ministry of Education/ SERVOL Project will have 155 early childhood centers, catering yearly for some 6,200 children 0–5 years and 30 Adolescent Centers providing additional training for some 3,600 youths each year. Both programmes are monitored by village boards of education, with a strong input from the community, and aim to improve the level of parenting skills throughout the nation.

The Ministry of Education is also investigating the possibility of using the SERVOL model to help in the formal system of education by identifying difficult students from secondary schools and enrolling them in the SERVOL Attitudinal Programme. Further efforts are also being made to introduce programme for first offenders in the prison system.

- Promote effective local decision-making and management
- Broaden participation by diverse institutions
- Utilize public information systems
- Co-ordinate basic learning with other societal activities
- Provide support after basic learning.

As will be shown, all of these seven elements are linked, and programme design should incorporate decisions (preferably explicit ones) about each.

There is a need to *identify priority populations and learning needs* because the demand for basic learning is far greater than its supply. Some populations may be assigned priority status because basic learning will increase their productivity in economic and social development. Others might be emphasized so as to redress current inequities. In either case, there is a need to protect the investment of the scarce resources made available. One way to do this is to *target the motivated*, a second is to *motivate those targeted*. This *mobilization of demand* will promote the efficient use of resources as well as the effective use of learning.

The third efficiency need is to *promote effective local decision-making*. This should be done by allowing decisions to be made by the individual or agency that is best informed in each case. For example, certain decisions on delivery, content, and participant needs might best be made at the local level, whereas the national authority should establish standards for performance and co-ordinate efforts to promote

**Box 4.21 The Service Centre Concept: Support for Out-of-School Training**

In the mid-1970s, several developing countries began, simultaneously, to improve techniques for disseminating information from centre points to the grass roots. Service centres sprang up to transfer information and training and – even more important to many educators – to help community groups develop methods for identifying problems and acquiring the information and resources for solving them.

Several centres began with little or no outside help; for example, in 1974, the *Lesotho* Distance Teaching Centre was blessed with more talent than money. It began selling materials and training services to other organizations, using an agency that still brings it income. *Nepal's* Literacy Section of the Ministry of Education had an excellent series of teaching materials but virtually no budget for administering a literacy programme. By providing teaching materials at cost to various public and private development organizations, the Literacy Section has succeeded in linking literacy with the core development needs of thousands of Nepalese.

Service agencies in other countries were designed to meet identified deficiencies in out-of-school training. In order to save its new integrated rural development programme, the government of *Ecuador* created the National Institute for Campesino Training (INCCA), which addresses the need to develop human resources. INCCA strengthened the extension and training programmes in all ministries involved and it links training more closely to the country's research establishment. In *The Gambia*, the government drew on a study of the literacy and numeracy needs of entrepreneurs in the informal sector to design its Nonformal Education Services (NFES). NFES staff cooperate with virtually all government departments to improve the effectiveness of training programmes, using a broad range of instruction technologies and techniques in order to teach subjects as disparate as ox-plowing and holistic development theory.

Nongovernmental organizations also function as service agencies: the *Bangladesh* Rural Advancement Committee has a Training and Resource Centre (TARC) that trains landless peasants, government employees, and field staff of other nongovernmental organizations. TARC has been in operation since 1976 and is larger than many government programmes. In *Venezuela*, the Centro al Servicio de la Accion Popular (CESAP), in operation since 1974, annually offers hundreds of courses for development-related organizations and members of grass-roots groups; about 60 percent of its budget comes from service income.

All the service centres have managed to accomplish what development planners have long urged: working across sectoral boundaries, they improve the quality of life for people at the grass roots.

economies of scale. Examples of such economies may exist in the areas of personnel training, curriculum design, materials production and delivery, and resource needs assessment and monitoring.

In fact, governments can play several *facilitating roles* in meeting the basic learning needs of youth and adults: initiator, motivator, financier, and standard setter. Governments also can create a policy environment that is supportive of learning opportunities. This environment might include tax incentives to private sector firms and nongovernmental organizations to provide literacy programmes. The efficiency of literacy and basic knowledge and skills programmes could be enhanced by labour and wage laws that reduce opportunity costs and increase benefits to workers who participate in such programmes. Incentive structures could be developed for motivating institutions, communities, and individuals to participate in and promote basic learning efforts. A government could take the lead in those efforts that target the most disadvantaged populations. Given the arguments for basing literacy efforts in the community and the work place, governments need not, and probably should not, be the primary co-ordinators and implementors of all basic learning programmes. These two tasks do not reflect

the unique comparative advantages of governmental authority.

When *communities* are consulted and allowed to determine their own priorities and contribute to the design and financing of learning and development projects, they begin to see themselves as the managers of change. They develop a trust in their own information, insights, and leadership capabilities that makes them better able to understand, integrate, and sustain development messages and technologies (typically relayed by government extension services and the media). Therefore, decisions concerning the efficient use of resources should be made at the local level whenever possible. Ultimately, it is the community that best knows its own needs and the environment or culture in which learning will take place.

*Decentralization* is an administrative means to encourage responsive basic learning programmes throughout a nation. A government service agency could serve as the technical, financial, and managerial intermediary in a national network of basic education agencies and activities. It may offer technical competence in areas such as participatory training techniques and the design of instructional materials; project planning, monitoring, and evaluation; and organizational development. By training the direct providers of basic learning – whether in various government ministries, private enterprises, or community and other nongovernmental social agencies – an intermediary agency can have a significant multiplier effect. It could also promote the horizontal exchange of information among the providers. However, decentralization, to be concomitant with increased efficiency, must be preceded by or concomitant with the development of local capacities to acquire, process and use information in a form adapted to local needs.

The fourth efficiency need is to *broaden participation by diverse institutions.* Public and nongovernmental organizations, the private sector, communities, families, and other agencies all have a potential role in basic learning for youth and adults. The larger the number of agencies involved and the greater their diversity, the better the chances of increasing the aggregate resources available and enhancing the flexibility of programmes to meet participants' special requirements – and therefore of improving efficiency. The decentralization of decision making, discussed above, can create an environment conducive to broader participation.

*Comparative advantage* should be the organizing principle for decision-making responsibility. Nongovernmental organizations, for example, have proven to be innovative and adaptable. They often have strong local networks and are closer to the learners than many government agencies; thus, they find it easier to recruit and motivate participants. Governments, however, have greater resources at their disposal and often can realize economies of scale, for example, in printing literacy materials or providing village libraries and newspapers. Communities often possess a vast array of untapped resources, such as instructional and managerial ability and useful indigenous knowledge. Local private entrepreneurs typically are most attuned to the special appeal of a magazine, comic, or poster which could be adapted to produce entertaining and interesting basic learning materials.

The fifth efficiency need is to *utilize the public information system* – radio, television, print media, libraries, and museums. This system can deliver both information and instruction directly to the individual. More generally, it reinforces earlier basic learning activities. By allowing the learners to use their new knowledge and skills, the information system becomes an integral part of the basic learning process. Its diversity can add to the comprehensiveness and efficiency of basic learning activities, and it has the potential to update information and knowledge continuously.

Even educators and communication experts often fail to regard the *information system as a major component of the nation's total education system.* It is essential that nations expand their understanding of what constitutes the full range of educational institutions and delivery systems if they are to realize the goal of providing educational opportunities for all youth and adults.

The sixth efficiency need is *to co-ordinate basic learning with other societal activities.* Lifelong learning is becoming a fact of life in modern economies, and a global trend toward multiple learning solutions is involving organizations in roles they never performed before. *Training institutions are becoming pro-*

*ducers, while production enterprises are becoming trainers.*

A broad range and mix of work-related training opportunities is provided by private industries, professional associations, and other nongovernmental organizations to meet the changing learning needs of youth and adults. In addition, basic learning programmes are being offered by a host of indigenous institutions, such as a Buddhist wat in Thailand, a pesantran in Indonesia or Morocco, a local library in North America, and a maison de la culture in France. A crucial challenge to such programmes is to provide marginal populations with modern sector skills.

Countries should reexamine the allocation of the resources already devoted to basic learning so as to assure their effective use for each given population or situation. In Lesotho, Venezuela, and other settings, "service centres" (discussed earlier in the context of decentralized decision making) supply the skills of literacy professionals and nonschool-based educators to tackle fundamental basic learning problems in an integrated development context. The professionals serve as agents in sectoral programmes such as agriculture, health, co-operatives, and forestry, using their unique skills to develop learning materials and participatory training. Within such programmes, government may have an effective role as information broker, source of technical assistance, financial creditor, and standard setter.

Implicit in the above service approach is a new role for government. With a variety of policies, technical assistance, and financial incentives, a government can become less an implementor of large-scale, bureaucratic basic education and more a facilitator and evaluator of many small-scale, locally controlled basic education services. The financial as well as programmatic benefits are that scarce governmental resources are spent not on meeting programme costs or administrative demands, but on supporting grass-roots efforts with the knowledge and skill-building that is needed.

Another efficiency need is to provide *support after basic learning* takes place. For investments in basic learning to be efficient over the long term, learners must continue to have opportunities to use their new knowledge and skills and to build on them. Although there are many similarities between the provision of education and health services, a critical difference is that there is no one preventive action, no "cognitive inoculation" in the shape of schooling, but rather a series of life-long "knowledge and skill boosters" that reinforce the early lessons and provide new ones throughout adulthood. As consumers and producers, youth and adults – whether illiterate rural mothers struggling with their children's health, urban street vendors in search of licenses, or senior citizens seeking to make a meaningful social contribution – must have the information, social support, and practical services that only continuous education can provide.

This analysis of policies and programmes necessarily has concerned itself with the common or modal patterns of basic education that exist in the world. As noted initially, each country has the responsibility to identify and select those conclusions or inferences that can assist them in the formulation of their own policies, programmes, and research agendas. One generalizable finding does exist, however: all nations will need to seek courageous and creative means to meet their basic learning needs. As identified in the next chapter, national, regional, and international forms of co-operation and assistance can help identify these means and promote their application.

# 5

# *Strategies for the 1990s*

Certain broad conclusions may be deduced, on the basis of the preceding discussion, about the possibilities for a worldwide initiative to meet the basic learning needs of all:

- Global challenges, evident in the threat of economic stagnation and decline, growing disparities within and among countries, increasing marginalization of populations, degradation of the environment, and rapid population growth, seriously constrain human development, including efforts to meet basic learning needs throughout the world.
- Basic education meets certain intrinsic needs of individuals, builds abilities to meet other basic human needs, increases productivity, and helps develop capacities to address key aspects of the global challenges cited above.
- The present state of basic education is inadequate to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults. If current trends and conventional approaches to education and training continue, the situation of learning in the world will certainly worsen, and will aggravate the global problems, rather than help to address them.
- An expanded vision of basic education is urgently required, one that encompasses five components: universalizing access to basic education activities and promoting equity of treatment; focussing on actual learning; broadening the means and scope of basic education to cover a wide range of delivery systems and population groups; enhancing the environment for learning in the home and community; and strengthening partnerships at all levels among the various authorities, organizations, groups and families involved in basic education.
- Available data indicate that countries with similar socio-economic conditions may have very different levels of educational attainment, due to differences in policies and priorities affecting education. This fact should encourage each country to set courageous targets for meeting the basic learning needs of its people and to develop a feasible plan of action to reach those targets in a reasonable time.

Building on these conclusions, this chapter outlines a global strategy for concerted action during the 1990s. The strategy will allow coun-

tries to move decisively toward agreed and attainable targets to reach the goal of education for all. Several priority areas are identified for action at national level and for supporting action at regional and international levels. These areas are so highly interrelated that action in one must be co-ordinated with actions in the others. The relative importance of each area and the specific actions required will vary, of course, from one country or region to another.

### A. Priority Action at National Level

Success or failure in meeting the basic learning needs of all people will depend ultimately on the actions taken within individual countries. Regional and international co-operation and financial assistance can facilitate improvement, but national governments and their domestic partners will be the key forces for change. Given the diversity of situations, capacities and social goals among countries, it is possible here to indicate, in general terms only, certain key areas that merit priority attention in most developing and industrialized countries. Each nation will, of course, determine for itself what specific actions may be necessary within each area outlined below.

#### *(i) Assessing needs, planning action and defining targets*

A major national effort to meet the basic learning needs of all requires a comprehensive, *multisectoral* plan of action. (Although the text refers to a single, national plan of action, it is understood that several plans may be needed in federal and other decentralized national systems.) Given the multisectoral nature and scope of basic education, the plan of action will probably differ from past or present education plans, which are generally limited to activities under the ministry responsible for formal education. Of course, the plan of action to provide basic education for all will need to take into account, or even incorporate, elements concerning primary and other forms of basic education contained in any existing education plan. Similarly, it will need to conform to the relevant objectives of other sectoral plans (such as those for agriculture, labour, and health) and the country's overall development plan and strategy. In general terms, the *action plan* should specify:

- the basic learning needs to be met, including cognitive skills, values, attitudes, as well as subject knowledge;
- studies for the evaluation of existing systems (analysis of problems, failures and successes);
- the languages to be used in education;
- means to promote the demand for, and broadscale participation in, basic education;
- modalities to mobilize family and local community support;
- targets and specific objectives;
- the required capital and recurrent resources, duly costed, as well as possible measures for cost effectiveness;
- indicators and procedures to be used to monitor progress in reaching the targets;
- priorities for using resources and for developing services and programmes over time;
- the priority groups that require special measures;
- the kinds of expertise required to implement the plan;
- institutional and administrative arrangements needed;
- modalities for ensuring information sharing among formal and other basic education programmes; and
- an implementation strategy and timetable.

A plan should clarify priorities for the phased development of services and programmes and for the use of public and private resources. In this connection, it should provide for mobilizing and allocating new resources – within and among the several sectors concerned – to meet basic learning needs in a comprehensive manner.

A national plan of action should set clear objectives and measurable targets in a realistic timeframe. The definition of targets is a demanding task, but is important in mobilizing commitments and resources, and is crucial in monitoring progress. The more meaningful targets for basic education include a definition of the acceptable level of learning to be achieved; more common but less meaningful targets specify the enrolment levels or ratios to be attained. Specialists in several disci-

**Box 5.01 Jordan: A Plan of Action for Education Reform**

Jordan has a long-standing policy of human resources development through the provision of quality education and appropriate training. The education and training system has served the interest of the country well in the past and has expanded rapidly to a point where enrollments at the basic secondary and higher educational levels are among the highest in the world. Rapid quantitative growth has had inevitable adverse effects on qualitative aspects of the system, however, and at the same time, major changes in the economic climate both at home and abroad and the ever increasing use of technology in all aspects of life have contributed to the need for a comprehensive reform of the education and training system.

Taking into account the changing patterns of the country's needs, policy makers have critically reviewed and reassessed the provision of education and training in Jordan against the criteria of its relevance and adequacy for meeting the future needs of the country. Consequently, the Government has committed itself to reconstruct and modernize the entire education and training system. To translate these commitments into action, the Government has embarked on a comprehensive ten-year education reform programme. A Government-sponsored national conference on education in 1987 identified a comprehensive list of priority areas for basic and secondary education, including the following:

1. Comprehensive curriculum reform, involving across-the-board review and revision to make curricula more relevant to modern-day needs, more reflective of up-to-date pedagogy, and more responsive to individual students' differing capabilities;
2. Extension of free universal basic education from Grades 1-9 to Grades 1-10; accompanied by the introduction of a full range of new or substantially revised textbooks, teachers' books and other educational materials for all grades and main subjects taught;
3. A programme for upgrading teachers' and school administrators' qualifications at all levels, involving in particular a certification programme to bring basic education teachers up to BA equivalency (along with similar programmes for secondary teachers and administrators);
4. A programme to familiarize inservice teachers with reform goals and associated pedagogic/subject matter improvements;
5. Eventual elimination of double shifting in schools and the gradual replacement of rented facilities by new purpose-built schools equipped with libraries, laboratories and audiovisual facilities (which would also be provided over time to all existing purpose-built schools), along with the improved use of educational television in schools;
6. Evaluation and introduction of improved methods of education cost recovery and/or revenue sharing.

plines, from pedagogy to economics, can help define meaningful and measurable targets. Widespread public discussion of proposed targets can help build understanding and acceptance of the targets and the plan of action.

Even though targets must be established specifically for and by each country, five *general principles* should inform the process of establishing intermediate targets:

- The ultimate goal for each country is to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth, and adults. All plans of actions, strategies for special groups, and assignment of priorities must be part of a phased, long-term systemic approach to universalize the achievement of basic learning at an acceptable level. The focus on learning acquisition is central to the meeting of all basic learning needs. Access, continued participation, and graduation should therefore be defined only in terms of access to, continued participation in, and graduation from activities that produce an acceptable level of learning achievement.
- No regional or global standards can be imposed on countries, and regional

plans of action cannot set the rate at which individual countries will progress from the current status of basic education to the attainment of the ultimate target. Such aggregate and external specification of the process would represent an abrogation of national autonomy and will not help in the planning or monitoring of basic learning activities. However, regional plans of action to mobilize and co-ordinate collective resources and support activities may be useful.

- Each country should monitor its own progress and trace improvemets from the present situation through the intermediate targets to the ultimate goal. The intermediate targets should be established and readjusted in accordance with each country's own evolving needs, resources, and priorities.
- All intermediate targets should specify the proportion or number of individuals who will attain an agreed level of necessary learning achievement. Although learning achievement will continue to vary among individuals, specification of the acceptable level of learning achievement for all can help reduce the dramatic inequities in actual achievement reported in many countries today.
- The intermediate targets should not be simple projections of current trends and resources but should reflect the expanded vision and its components. The intermediate targets should be *realistic* and *courageous*, because basic learning needs can be met more effectively in the future within the expanded vision.

Countries may wish to set their own targets for the 1990s in terms of the following dimensions proposed in the *Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs*:

1. Expansion of early childhood care and developmental activities, including family and community interventions *especially* for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children;
2. Universal access to, and completion of, primary education (or whatever higher level of education is considered as "basic") by the year 2000;
3. Improvement in learning achievement such that an agreed percentage of an appropriate age cohort (e.g. 80 percent of 14 year-olds) attains or surpasses a defined level of necessary learning achievement;
4. Reduction of the adult illiteracy rate (the appropriate age group to be determined in each country) to, say, one-half its 1990 level by the year 2000, with sufficient emphasis on female literacy to significantly reduce the current disparity between male and female illiteracy rates;
5. Expansion of provisions of basic education and training in other essential skills required by youth and adults, with programme effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural changes and impacts on health, employment and productivity;
6. Increased acquisition by individuals and families of the knowledge, skills and values required for better living and sound and sustainable development, made available through all education channels including the mass media, other forms of modern and traditional communication, and social action, with effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural change.

Insofar as possible, targets established in respect to these dimensions should define acceptable levels of performance and the proportions of participants who are expected to reach these levels in specific basic education programmes. Targets should be consistent with the expanded vision of basic education which focusses on universalization of access *and* on learning acquisition as joint and inseparable concerns. In all cases, performance targets should specify equity by gender.

The first dimension concerns the general provision of early childhood care and developmental activities, but emphasizes its particular importance for children who are disabled or disadvantaged in other ways. Targets might specify the number or proportion of such children who will be reached by this form of basic education activity.

While universal primary education is usually defined in relation to the age-group 6 to 11 or 12, this dimension actually concerns the

provision of basic education opportunities for children and adults, both in and out of school, *at least* at the level of primary education. In many countries today, "basic education" in accordance with the expanded vision extends into secondary education as well. Therefore, targets concerning the second dimension should not be limited to formal schooling, and they may need to be formulated to cover access to, and completion of, basic learning activities corresponding to a post-primary level of education.

The third dimension implies some form of assessment to determine whether the defined level of learning achievement has in fact been attained. This might be based on a sample of fourteen-year-olds, by which age all children should have completed primary school or its equivalent. If an unacceptably low percentage of individuals are able to demonstrate the basic knowledge and skills they should have acquired, alternative learning strategies could be introduced to increase the proportion of successful learners.

The fourth dimension suggests that a country with an estimated illiteracy rate of 30 percent in 1990 would strive to reduce the aggregate rate to no more than 15 percent by the year 2000. If females in that country represent a larger proportion of adult illiterates than they do of the adult population, then literacy programmes should promote female participation so that, by the year 2000, the proportions of male and female literates are equal. Because of the special contributions of literate women to development activities in most contexts, some countries may plan an even greater emphasis on reducing female illiteracy. Each country should establish priorities for other population groups as appropriate.

The fifth dimension covers a diverse and growing range of learning activities provided as basic education for youth and adults. No generic quantitative targets are possible for these varied activities but specific targets for the largest or most significant activities would be justified for the reasons noted above — mobilization of support, focussing on effort, and monitoring of progress. An example of such a target would be the proportion of participants who should complete a skill training class with the appropriate set of demonstrable abilities. Other targets, for instance, might specify changes to be attained in the proportion of learners who smoke cigarettes, or who practice family planning, or who become self-employed.

The sixth dimension also concerns a wide range of activities available to the general population. Some activities, such as radio and television broadcasts, may not currently be considered "educational" in the strict sense, but they may nevertheless stimulate public awareness and provide information that can lead to beneficial changes in behavior. Targets relating to this dimension might resemble those defined for the fifth dimension, but would need to be formulated in respect to behavioural change in the general or adult population, since everyone is presumed to be a potential learner.

*(ii) Creating a supportive policy environment*

To be fully effective, a multisectoral plan of action must be supported by the overall policy environment; therefore, the policies governing the sectors concerned may have to be adjusted. The purpose of such adjustment is to ensure that the relevant aspects of *all* concerned sectors interact so that they are mutually supportive, more effective, and in line with the country's overall development goals. Action to meet basic learning needs should be seen as a vital part of the country's total development efforts.

Because basic learning needs are intersectoral in nature, various agencies and institutions, in addition to the official education authorities, are actually involved in meeting those and related needs. Probably few, if any, governments have managed to create a policy environment that takes this complexity fully into account. Sectoral policies should interact to promote co-operation among all the concerned agencies and institutions so that they can work together to attain interrelated policy goals, such as better health, rural development, employment generation, and basic education.

Legislative and administrative measures may be needed to create consultative mechanisms (e.g. a national council for basic education) and to introduce incentives for parents, communities, employers, the media, and other partners to allocate more resources (funds, energy, time) to basic education activities. Official and voluntary channels can be

used to build public awareness of, and commitment to, the goal of education for all. Public participation at all levels in developing education policy generally has positive results. Visible and continuing support for basic education by the political and administrative authorities is essential in creating and sustaining a policy environment conducive to meeting basic learning needs for all.

*(iii) Designing policies to improve basic education*

As discussed in Chapter 4, the *relevance* of basic education to actual learning needs is a precondition of educational quality, equity and efficiency. The key issue concerning relevance is to achieve a suitable equilibrium in the content and methods of basic education between the immediate needs and environment of the learners, and the longer-term and more general needs of society. A specific strategy should be designed to improve the *quality* and relevance of basic education services and programmes, focussing on at least three crucial aspects: instructional and supervisory personnel, learning materials, and time spent on actual learning. (In some countries, a fourth aspect, physical facilities for learning, will also require urgent attention.)

In respect to instructional and supervisory personnel, the strategy should provide for improvements to pre-service training programmes and for incentives and opportunities to upgrade knowledge and skills through in-service training; it should also include measures to upgrade status and career prospects. Where instructional materials are scarce, the strategy should include measures to supply suitable textbooks and other learning materials in adequate quantities throughout the country. Increasing the use of the information media in educating the public should also be prominently featured. The strategy should provide ways to reduce absenteeism by teachers and pupils, and to enable pupils to spend more time in actual learning. Finally, in certain countries, the strategy should include measures to maintain and, where necessary, rehabilitate existing educational facilities and equipment, and to provide for phased expansion and upgrading of the physical plant to meet future requirements, drawing on community participation and responsibility wherever feasible.

Expanding access to basic education is an effective way to improve *equity*, provided that the quality of education offered is satisfactory. Ensuring that girls, women and other disadvantaged groups stay involved in basic education activities, until they have attained at least a satisfactory level of learning, should be encouraged through special measures, designed in consultation with representatives of these groups wherever possible. In addition, improvements to educational quality and relevance should be implemented to support greater equity.

Measures to keep learners in basic education programmes also help improve *efficiency*, by using available resources to obtain the intended results at the lowest per-unit cost. Both the educator and the administrator should try to ensure that the maximum possible number of learners complete educational programmes in the allotted time; that they achieve at least the stipulated level of learning; and that all available resources are used fully and efficiently.

*(iv) Improving managerial, analytical and technological capacities*

The action areas outlined above presuppose a range of analytical and managerial capabilities, from policy analysis and planning, through administration and financial management of programmes and institutions, to design and implementation of educational development projects. To a greater or lesser degree, all these management functions require reliable, up-to-date data and other information. However, as discussed in Chapter 2, there is a serious lack of sound information on basic learning needs and on how and to what extent these needs are being met. This lack is particularly evident in developing countries, but many industrialized nations also lack reliable statistics on certain education and training activities outside the purview of the government authorities.

An essential step to improve capacity in this area is to establish, or reinforce, technical services and mechanisms to collect and analyze data on basic learning needs, basic education,

**Box 5.02 Empowering the Education Manager**

The ability to effect educational results is possible at every level of school system – at the central or ministry level, at the regional or district level, and, most importantly, at the school level. The key to effectiveness is a systemwide commitment to real educational results, at every level. Each level in a school system needs to be prepared to be accountable for the measurable results it achieves.

At the school level, the recent experience of countries such as Colombia, Thailand, and Korea demonstrate that educational results improve when headmasters or principals focus on (1) academics and specific aspects that promote improved learning in schools; (2) community relationships which complement school curriculum; and (3) links to higher administrative authorities that support the school. The use of supervision and test results to evaluate effectiveness is part of this process.

Some countries such as Zimbabwe, Honduras, and Indonesia have been pioneering new techniques at the central management level aimed at improving the environment for teaching and learning as the key to improved educational results. Improvements occur when there is a central focus on (1) effective administration of personnel activities – payments, promotions, transfers, and housing of teachers; (2) reinforcement of teachers and immediate supervisors through curricular materials, on-the-job training, and incentives; (3) development of an information infrastructure that allows monitoring of student performance, monitoring of teacher performance, and monitoring of administrative performance; and (4) encouragement of local research and simulation to determine which instructional techniques work best within the country.

Good educational management means achieving the most important basic educational goals: teaching students to read and write, to handle their numbers, and to think for themselves, both well and efficiently. Empowering managers at every level to achieve these simple goals is a major sign of a healthy educational system.

and their sociocultural context. This requires an operational definition of the learning needs considered "basic" and agreed indicators for monitoring progress in meeting them, for evaluating the effectiveness of specific programmes and activities, as well as for assessing individual learning achievement. Most developing countries will need to develop their statistical services and management information systems to provide relevant information to a wide range of professionals working at national and subnational levels. Furthermore, there is a pressing need for research to clarify policy and pedagogical issues, and applied research to translate relevant findings into actual practice.

Operating an educational institution, programme or system is a demanding job in any country. A large number of professionals covering a wide range of expertise are needed, but are rarely available, to analyze policy options, plan improvements, and manage day-to-day operations. People with training and experience in policy analysis, project planning, and evaluation are badly needed, especially in developing countries, where their skills are essential for *inter alia* developing a true dialogue, on an equal footing, with external partners. These management skills are a precious commodity with a significant multiplier effect. However, management training, which should be a particularly attractive investment, has been much neglected. All partners involved in basic education should consider ways to introduce systematic training of management personnel.

Even skilled managers can be handicapped by outmoded and inefficient administrative structures. Where national plans of action call for expanding and improving the network of primary schools, this may strain the existing administrative structures and increase pressures to reform and modernize them. Innovative methods and structures will also be

needed for developing and managing flexible programmes for alternative primary education (in some countries), for the training of youth and adults, and for public education, using the information and communications media.

The use of modern information and communications technology can also improve the management of basic education. Furthermore, the quality and delivery of basic education can be enhanced through the judicious use of instructional technologies. Where these technologies are not now widely used, their introduction will require the selection and/or development of suitable technologies, acquisition of the necessary equipment and operating systems, and the recruitment or training of teachers, administrators and other educational personnel to work with them. The definition of a suitable technology varies by societal characteristics and will change rapidly over time as established and new technologies (radio and television, computers, telefacsimile machines, and various audio-visual instructional devices) become less expensive and more adaptable to a range of environments. In view of the growing applications relevant to basic education and the rapid evolution of modern technology, each country will have to reexamine periodically its current and potential technological capacity in relation to its needs and resources.

*(v) Mobilizing information and communication channels*

In addition to utilizing modern information and communication technologies within basic education activities, their use in the mass media can also be organized much more effectively than at present to support basic education objectives. Radio, television and the press, as well as various traditional popular activities such as festivals and folk theatre, offer tremendous potential for providing basic education to the general public and to particular groups that are otherwise difficult to reach. This will entail developing partnerships between educators and those responsible for these various media to work out together modalities of cooperation that are consistent with a country's plan of action for basic education and the mandate and constituency of each of the media.

*(vi) Building partnerships and mobilizing resources*

In planning basic education and creating a supportive policy environment, there should be opportunities to bring together the several actual or potential partners involved in meeting basic learning needs: e.g., family and community organizations, voluntary associations, religious bodies, teachers' unions, other professional groups, employers, the media, political parties, co-operatives, universities and other institutions, as well as education authorities and other government departments and services (labour, agriculture, health, commerce, industry, defence, etc.). The human and organizational resources these domestic partners represent need to be effectively mobilized to play their parts in implementing the plan of action. *Partnerships* should be encouraged at the community level and at intermediate and national levels to facilitate consultation and co-operation. They can also help harmonize activities, utilize resources more effectively, and mobilize additional resources where necessary.

Partnerships, particularly at the local level, need to recognize the preeminent role of teachers and other educational personnel in providing quality basic education. Their role can be enhanced through measures to improve their working conditions and status, notably in respect to their recruitment, initial and in-service training, remuneration and career development possibilities, as well as measures respecting their trade union rights and professional freedoms.

Community associations, co-operatives, religious bodies, and other non-governmental organizations also play important roles in supporting and in providing basic education. Their experience, expertise, energy and direct relationships with various constituencies are valuable resources for identifying and meeting basic learning needs. Their active involvement in partnerships for basic education should be promoted through policies and mechanisms that strengthen their capacities and recognize their autonomy.

Partnerships may also include external partners active in the country: United Nations agencies, other intergovernmental organizations, multilateral development banks,

**Box 5.03 The Philippines: Increased Efficiency and Local Support**

Relative to other developing countries, the Philippines has attained a high level of educational development. Gross enrollment rates in 1980 were over 100 percent for elementary schools, 65 percent for secondary schools, and 26 percent in tertiary education. The Philippines has a long history of universal participation at the elementary level and has achieved a high representation of females across all levels of education. The central Government has predominated in the support of elementary education and the private sector has had extensive involvement in the provision of secondary and tertiary education. In 1986, 40 percent of secondary and 85 percent of tertiary enrollments were in private institutions.

The key sectoral problems of the 1970s and 1980s were low quality (especially in rural areas) and high rates of attrition and repetition. However, efforts to deal with these problems have been constrained by political and economic instability. An adjustment program was established in 1983 but in 1986 the new Government of the Philippines committed itself to increase real spending on education, in part through redistribution of funds from other sectors.

The strong private sector involvement in education has helped shelter the sector from the full effects of the current fiscal austerities. To improve matters further, the Government has embarked on a two-part strategy to utilize innovative funding methods and to increase internal efficiency. Decentralization of authority has been tied to local community support for schools. Research has indicated that locally supported schools not only have more resources but use their available resources in a more cost-effective manner. By 1988 two-thirds of public primary schools relied on some sort of extra-budgetary local support and 26 percent received more than 5 percent of their budget from community sources.

Efforts to improve internal efficiency have focussed on the curriculum, textbooks, educational equipment and supplies, and school management. While mastery levels in the disadvantaged schools remain low, improvements in learning achievement are being realized.

The major remaining concerns in the education sector in the Philippines are the problems of: (1) social inequalities in the provision of elementary education (test scores in urban areas exceed those in rural locations by 15 to 20 percent); (2) a continuing high wastage rate (one-third of the students who begin elementary education fail to complete it); and (3) maintaining support of elementary education within the context of increasing social and political pressure to expand and improve the secondary and higher levels of education.

Since is unlikely that education's share of Government spending can be increased above its present 21 percent, further use of local and private support of education will be required and continuing efforts to improve internal efficiency must be maintained. A strong asset for the Philippines in this regard is the tradition of private and community involvement in schools and the Government's formulation of an integrated set of policies (dealing with teacher recruitment and training, textbook and science equipment availability, and school management) to deal with present inefficiencies within the education system.

bilateral development agencies, international nongovernmental organizations, and foundations. Their co-operation in basic education usually takes the form of exchanging information and experience, sharing personnel and facilities, providing technical assistance and policy advice, and funding activities through grants or loans. Partnerships that include external partners can be useful in channelling external aid to complement and support domestic resources.

Because present *levels of resources* allocated to meet basic learning needs in developing countries are substantially inadequate, decisive action by all domestic and external partners is needed to increase the total volume of available human, material and financial resources and to use them in more cost effec-

tive ways. Once the current allocation and use of financial and other resources for education and training in different sectors has been analyzed there are essentially, four options for obtaining additional support for basic education: (i) improving efficiency in the use of available resources; (ii) prioritizing expenditures; (iii) reallocating resources within government budgets; and (iv) finding new sources of funding within and outside government budgets. Each country will need to seek the appropriate mix of these options to assure adequate financing to meet the basic learning needs of its population. (Annex 2 analyzes the impact of various educational reform measures on meeting the economic challenge of primary education in the 1990s.)

Some specific *efficiencies* can be achieved, for example, by utilizing educational buildings and equipment more intensively, improving the use of learners' time, and providing appropriate instructional materials for learners and instructors. Such measures may actually reduce per unit costs, or they may lead to better learning achievement for the investment made. Developing ways to assess learning achievement is important for this reason, among others. Reducing the rate of attrition (dropout) and repetition of pupils can be an effective strategy to increase the efficiency of a programme or entire system, as well as to improve equity. However, the social investment in education is efficient and equitable only if the learning achievement of all pupils is at an acceptable level. Initially, it may cost more to provide quality education to the potential drop-out or repeater, but it should be borne in mind that drop-outs and repeaters require expenditures that do not result in graduation or in appropriate learning achievement. It is obviously more efficient to use funds to finance learning instead of wastage. Furthermore, if improvements in the quality of education lower the rates of attrition and repetition, the savings from the reduced wastage can be used to open new places in schools for children currently denied access.

For society, an investment in the preconditions for learning and compensatory measures for pupils at risk in the early years of schooling can prove less expensive in the long run than financing their failure in school and their subsequent dependency or delinquency, and receiving a reduced return (e.g., less taxes) because of their lower earning capacity. For the individual and the family, the stigma of failure and the consequences of not having one's basic learning needs met are very high costs to bear.

Certain investments, such as improving the quality and availability of instructional materials, may pay for themselves through their positive effects on participation and achievement. In certain situations, programmed instructional materials and electronic educational technologies can enhance learning and efficiency, especially in offsetting the negative effects of multigrade classrooms, large classes, and inadequately trained teachers.

By increasing the effective utilization of available resources, efficiency gains in basic education activities also have a secondary effect. Those who supply resources for these activities are more willing to continue or increase the supply if they believe the resources will be used efficiently. Thus, efficiency in the use of current resources is a strong argument when seeking additional resources.

*Prioritizing* public expenditures is necessary because every country, in the short run, faces a greater demand for basic learning opportunities than it can meet. The priorities established should promote programmes that reach certain groups (e.g., those representing special equity concerns) without explicitly excluding any potential participant. Efficiency and equity considerations suggest that primary education should have the first claim on public resources. However, to be equitable and to meet the basic learning needs of all, priorities should be established within a long-term, phased and comprehensive approach to ensure that everyone will eventually have the opportunity to benefit from basic education. Prioritization can complement strategies to promote greater efficiency. All countries need to prioritize public expenditure and enhance efficiency, but this need will receive particular attention in countries where resource *utilization* is a more critical concern than the level of financial effort. These nations already may provide extensive opportunities for basic learning, but the benefits and beneficiaries may still be limited by existing inefficiencies.

*Reallocating* resources means shifting funds within the education budget, as well as from other government budgets, to support basic

education. Because such a large part of the benefits of basic education accrue to society and not just to the individual, there is a strong argument for allocating a greater relative share of public resources to basic education than is now the case in many countries. This does not necessarily imply taking funds away from the other levels and types of education. Rather, reallocation can occur over time by directing *a larger proportion of new resources* to support basic education. In this way an appropriate equilibrium between the several levels and types of education can be reached without sudden or drastic changes.

The reallocation of resources from one sector to another may be more difficult to effect because of competing claims for scarce government funds and because of misperceptions of the value of basic education (often ignoring its long-term benefits) in relation to other social and economic activities. However, planners and decision-makers can more easily encourage other sectors to make basic education activities an explicit part of their own programmes and of major development projects. The ministries in charge of labour, agriculture, industrial development, health and other aspects of human development generally organize some basic education activities already. In the short term, it is probably easier to obtain additional funds for these forms of basic education through reallocations within the budgets of other sectors than reallocations from these budgets to the education budget. However, such additional funding for basic education in other sectors is likely to be targeted on programmes for youth and adults, rather than children. In the long term, any substantial increase in funding for primary education may require increasing the education budget's relative share of government funds by reallocating resources, at least new resources, to it from other sectors.

*Finding new resources for basic education* can involve developing new sources of government revenue (for example, new taxes dedicated to education), encouraging private employers to help fund and provide basic learning opportunities, and facilitating the efforts of individuals, families, communities, and various kinds of nongovernmental organizations to support or to organize basic education activities. Government can increase the effect of its own investment in basic education by targeting funds to stimulate and support greater community and private financial participation. Such "leveraging" can be achieved, for example, through incentives to local communities to build and maintain schools and teachers' homes, guarantees of public bond issues, local control of school funds, and compensatory formulas that grant additional government funding to schools to help them remediate or compensate for the educational disadvantages of their pupil population. The domestic alliances discussed earlier can help governments diversify the sources of funding for basic education.

A careful *assessment* of the resources actually or potentially available, in relation to the funding required to implement the plan of action for basic education, can help identify possible inadequacies of resources that may affect the scheduling of planned activities over time; it may also show that hard choices must be made. Some countries simply will not be able to obtain sufficient resources, even if they use all of the ways discussed above to mobilize new levels and sources of funds for basic education. In such cases, the demand for basic learning opportunities will continue to exceed the supply, and the gap between the two may even grow.

These countries, which also suffer from a variety of other economic and social disadvantages, will need *external assistance* to move toward education for all. Technical assistance alone will not be enough: there is a clear need for substantial and sustained financial assistance to the education system itself. Assistance must be substantial enough to allow the disadvantaged nation to achieve the level of educational quality and access essential to the expanded vision of basic education for all. Assistance must be sustained until the nation has achieved a level of social and economic development that will allow it to meet the basic learning needs of its population with its own resources. The nature and amount of such assistance must be negotiated by specific countries and external assistance agencies; the resource assessment and plan of action can serve as the basis for those discussions.

Finally, an often neglected but vital resource that needs to be mobilized is the *individual learner*. The demand for, and participation in, learning opportunities cannot simply be assumed, but must be actively encouraged.

Potential learners need to see that the benefits of basic education activities exceed the costs the participants must bear, such as earnings foregone and reduced time available for community and household activities and for leisure. Women and girls especially may be deterred from taking full advantage of basic education opportunities because of reasons specific to individual cultures. Such barriers to participation may be overcome through the use of incentives and by programmes adapted to the local context and seen by the learners, their families and communities to be "productive activities". Also, learners tend to benefit more from education when they are partners in the instructional process, rather than treated simply as "inputs" or "beneficiaries". Attention to the issues of demand and participation will help assure that the learners' personal capacities are mobilized for education. Family resources, including time and mutual support, are vital for the success of basic education activities. Families can be offered incentives and assistance to ensure that their resources are invested to enable all family members to benefit as fully and equitably as possible from basic education opportunities.

**B. Priority Action at the Regional Level**

Basic learning needs must be met through action within countries, but there are many forms of co-operation between countries with similar conditions and concerns that could – and do – assist them in this endeavour. By exchanging information and experience, pooling expertise, sharing facilities, and undertaking joint activities, several countries, working together, are able to increase their resource base and achieve economies of scale to the benefit of them all. Such arrangements are often set up among neighbouring countries (sub-regional), among all countries in a major geo-cultural region, or among countries sharing a common language or having cultural or commercial relations. Regional and international organizations often play an important role in facilitating such co-operation between countries. Some regions already have relevant development plans, such as the Jakarta Plan of Action on Human Resources, adopted by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) in 1988, within which co-operation can be further strengthened. In the following discussion, all such arrangements are subsumed under the term "regional".

*(i) Exchanging information, experience and expertise*

Various regional mechanisms, both intergovernmental and nongovernmental, promote co-operation in education and training, health, agricultural development, research and information, communications, and in other fields relevant to meeting basic learning needs. Within the limitations of their respective mandates, resources and constituencies, such mechanisms can be utilized to exchange information, experience and expertise among institutions, organizations and government services involved in basic education. A prime example is the four regional programmes established through UNESCO during the 1980s to support national efforts to achieve universal primary education and eliminate adult illiteracy:

- Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean;
- Regional Programme for the Eradication of Illiteracy in Africa;
- Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL);
- Regional Programme for the Universalization and Renewal of Primary Education and the Eradication of Illiteracy in the Arab States by the Year 2000 (ARABUPEAL).

The industrialized countries should also consider establishing appropriate mechanisms for co-operating on basic education, including functional illiteracy.

In addition to the technical and policy consultations organized in connection with these programmes, other mechanisms could be utilized for consultations on policy issues concerning basic education, as needs arise: the regional conferences of ministers of education organized by UNESCO and by several regional organizations, and certain trans-regional conferences organized by the Commonwealth Secretariat, CONFEMEN (standing conference of ministers of education of francophone countries), and the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (ISESCO), as well as consultations among funding agencies convened by

**Box 5.04 APPEAL: Regional Co-operation in Education for All**

The Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL), launched in 1987 by UNESCO, provides a framework for regional cooperation and sharing of experiences relating to the universalization of primary education, the eradication of illiteracy, and the provision of continuing education in support of UPE and literacy. To date, 20 countries have formed a "national committee/mechanism" for APPEAL, and UNESCO's regional office in Bangkok (PROAP) serves as a focal point for APPEAL activities.

Participating countries have initiated joint projects to improve the quality of primary education, to design training for teachers working in difficult contexts, and to accelerate improved access and retention of girls in primary schools. In respect to literacy, a training network has been formed, and advanced training has been provided to a large number of trainers of literacy trainers and field officials through regional and national activities financed largely by a grant from the Government of Norway. "APPEAL training materials for literacy personnel" have also been developed, and so far ten countries have adopted them to use in training their own literacy workers. Furthermore, over 50 prototype materials for neo-literates have been prepared for adaptation and use by countries in their literacy programmes.

Activities undertaken through APPEAL to promote the education of women will be receiving financial support through a four-year joint UNDP-UNESCO project initiated in 1989. This multilateral funding and Norway's bilateral funding, together with national funding and in-kind contributions of the participating countries, illustrate how regional co-operation through simple structures like APPEAL can be financed in a flexible manner by various partners.

the newly created Task Force of Donors to African Education. In addition, numerous conferences and meetings organized by non-governmental bodies provide opportunities for professionals to share information and views on technical and policy issues. The conveners of these conferences and meetings should consider ways to extend participation, where appropriate, to include representatives of other sectors engaged in meeting basic learning needs.

*(ii) Undertaking joint activities*

There are numerous opportunities, still largely unexploited, for further regional co-operation in developing national capacities to more effectively meet basic learning needs for all. Joint regional projects in education and related fields have already demonstrated their usefulness to the participating countries and institutions – i.e., when the projects had enough sustained support and political commitment. Four areas in which such collaboration could be useful are outlined below.

*Training of key personnel* is often more cost-effective when countries share the facilities for in-service programmes or courses at a specialized institution that serves an entire region. Among those who could benefit from such training are planners, managers, teacher-educators, researchers, evaluators, curriculum specialists, and those who write educational radio and television programmes. Certain categories of personnel, such as teacher-educators, can multiply the effect of their own training experience by training others when they return to their own countries.

The earlier regional training institutions for school architects and educational planners and administrators pioneered this kind of collaboration, with generally favourable results. However, when the financial burden of institutions shifted to the host country, their regional character diminished or ceased. Currently, the dominant formula is ad hoc in-service training for selected personnel from groups of countries; but multi-year programmes with regular external funding are providing such training in English, French and Portuguese for several countries in Africa.

**Box 5.05 Regional Collaboration in the Sahel: Common Solutions to Shared Problems**

An example of regional cooperation in the development of common solutions to shared education problems is provided by the nine countries of the Sahel Region of Africa, i.e., Burkina, Cape Verde, Chad, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Mauritania, Niger and Senegal. In addition to fragile economies, serious environmental degradation, and accelerating population growth, these countries have, as a group, the least developed basic education systems in the world, with average primary enrollment and adult literacy rates of, respectively, 52 percent and 25 percent. They include four of the seven countries in the World that have less than 50 percent of their children of primary school age enrolled at school.

To exchange experiences on common education issues and to map out a strategy to address these issues, particularly in the field of basic education, the Ministers of Education of the nine countries met in Bamako, Mali, on January 15-18, 1990. The meeting was attended also by key Ministry of Finance/ Planning officials as well as by donors active in the Sahel. Among the key issues discussed were: (1) reasons why development of primary education should be given priority, and the consequences of this for other levels of education; (2) how to improve relevance and quality of primary education; (3) cost-effectiveness of alternative adjustment measures designed to ease present financial constraints; (4) effectiveness of external aid and ways of improving efficiency of project implementation; and (5) priority areas for education research.

The meeting was hailed by participants as a major success. This was the first time that Sahelian Ministers of Education met to review together future development prospects for their education systems. Participants realized that many of the key sector issues they were grappling with were fairly common throughout the region and that they, in their effort to develop national solutions, could learn from each other. In order to deepen the regional dialogue and cooperation initiated in Bamako, the Ministers agreed on a framework for follow-up, including workshops at both the ministerial level as well as technical meetings on more specialized themes. In this connection, the areas of educational research and institution-building were found to be particularly promising for regional cooperation, as this would offer economies of scale, help strengthen national research and policy development capacities, and permit the development of common solutions to shared problems.

The growing need for various specialists, both in and outside the field of education, to design and implement basic learning opportunities of all kinds raises the possibility of reviving regional institutions to train certain personnel. The magnet programmes used for agricultural training in some regions are one model that could be adapted for this purpose. In these programmes, technical training institutions in the co-operating countries agree to a division of labour based on their respective comparative advantages.

*The development of information and research capacities* is particularly well suited to collaboration among countries. As mentioned above, developing countries have a great need for data and research in education and related fields, particularly applied research useful for policy and pedagogy. Such research requires appropriate data collection mechanisms and a "critical mass" of scholars for mutual intellectual stimulation and criticism. However, the research communities in many countries are too small to provide the necessary depth of experience and breadth of disciplinary perspectives and lack good data collection facilities. Through intercountry joint research projects and networks of institutions, the critical mass of researchers is more likely to be achieved and the quality of research thereby enhanced. The greater challenge of joint research offers incentives that help keep professionals from migrating to permanent positions in the industrial countries. Also, cer-

tain data collection activities and research subjects can be dealt with more effectively across national borders.

The five regional networks for educational innovation, which operate under the auspices of UNESCO, provide established structures for exchanging information and co-operating in research related to meeting basic learning needs:

- Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID, operational since 1973);
- Network of Educational Innovation for Development in Africa (NEIDA, 1978);
- Programme of Co-operation in Research and Development of Educational Innovation in South and South-East Europe (CODIESEE, 1978);
- Caribbean Network of Educational Innovation for Development (CARNEID, 1981);
- Educational Innovation Programme for Development in the Arab States (EIPDAS, 1984).

These five networks link some 500 institutions and projects in 104 countries. According to a recent evaluation, they have had a significant multiplier effect in many of the participating countries.

Other useful mechanisms for co-operational include UNESCO's International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP) and its networks of trainees and research, the International Bureau for Education's (IBE) information network, the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE), the research and review advisory groups (RRAGs) associated with the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), the Commonwealth of Learning, the Asian Cultural Center for UNESCO, the participatory research network established by the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE), and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), which links major national research institutions in some 35 countries.

*The production of educational materials* presents two major problems for many less advantaged countries: developing appropriate content and manufacturing attractive materials in large quantities. Inter-country ventures have been attempted, with mixed success, but the potential economies of scale have not yet been systematically explored. Even countries using different languages should be able to collaborate in producing teaching materials, such as pictures, rulers, science equipment, films, and certain textbooks.

Particular attention could be given to collaboration in developing and producing "learning packages" or modules for basic education and skills training of children, youth, and adults. The packages could provide or reinforce basic literacy and numeracy instruction while dealing with topics related to basic learning needs common to many countries, such as sanitation, provision of safe water, care of infants, or food storage. A careful review of existing materials would probably reveal a wealth of good texts and illustrations which, with proper editing and audio-visual supports, could be drawn upon to develop useful prototypes. Individual countries could then adapt and translate the most appropriate packages for use in their own basic learning programmes.

*Distance education* is another area in which significant economies of scale could be realized, particularly among countries with the same language. For example, participating countries could share the expertise and development costs of radio or television programmes, and broadcast costs as well. Satellites have been used successfully to transmit educational programmes, including some for rural areas, but the cost apparently discourages *individual* developing countries. However, as the number of communication satellites grows and the corresponding land-based technologies become simpler and more affordable, countries can explore the possibility of joint education projects that use satellite transmission.

### C. Priority Action at World Level

#### *(i) Status and prospects of external funding*

Shifts in the policies and priorities of international and bilateral development funding institutions, however necessary and reasonable, have not been conducive to comprehensive and long-term efforts to develop education and training systems and institutions in the developing countries. In the early 198Os, international financial assistance to education leveled off, but it rose somewhat after 1987. From 1980 to 1986, the absolute

volume of bilateral and multilateral assistance for education grew slightly from $4,294 million to $4,328 million, an increase of less than one percent in six years. During this period, the major bilateral sources of funding represented in the Development Assistance Committee of the OECD (which together account for approximately 75 percent of all bilateral development assistance) reported a net *decrease* in funding for education. Their share of the total declined from 80 to 66 percent, with the balance covered by increased multilateral funding, mainly from the development banks. The decrease in bilateral funding occurred despite a 45 percent increase in overall development assistance by these same countries. Throughout this period, approximately nine percent of total development aid went to education.

Despite the severe economic constraints of the 1980s, the developing countries as a whole continued to expand their financial effort for education. Their public expenditure on education over the 1980-86 period increased by 8.8 percent, reaching an estimated $103,347 million in 1986. By contrast, external development assistance for education over the period was equivalent to only 4.2 percent of the domestic public expenditures, which by definition do not include the considerable domestic *private* expenditures on education. In some developing countries, however, external funding constitutes a significant share of the education budget and is often the sole source of capital funds, because recurrent expenditures absorb all available domestic funds.

External funding for primary education is not impressive in absolute or relative terms. During the early 1980s, *less than five percent* of all financial assistance for education went to primary education, that is, approximately $180 million per year (see Table 6 and Chart 7). Only one-third of this aid went to the low-income countries (despite their having two-thirds of the world's population); another 57 percent went to the lower-middle-income countries (see Chart 8). Multilateral sources (including loans from development banks) accounted for 66 percent of the funds for primary education; nongovernmental organizations contributed an estimated five percent. About 30 percent of external financial assistance was used for improvements to buildings and equipment, and another 30 percent went to general budgetary support; various pedagogical costs accounted for only 12 to 18 percent.

**Table 6 External Assistance to Education 1981-1986**
*(millions of US dollars)*

| | *1981* | *1986* | *1981-86 Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| A. For Primary Education | 180 | 200 | 1,100 |
| B. For All Education | | | |
| (by source) | 3,767 | 4,328 | 24,445 |
| Bilateral | 2,596 | 2,859 | 16,357 |
| Multilateral | 1,171 | 1,469 | 8,088 |
| C. For All Development | | | |
| (by source) | 39,309 | 53,819 | 270,082 |
| Bilateral | 18,195 | 26,228 | 123,094 |
| Multilateral | 21,114 | 27,591 | 146,988 |
| A as % of B | 4.8 | 4.6 | 4.5 |
| B as % of C | 6.9 | 8.0 | 9.1 |

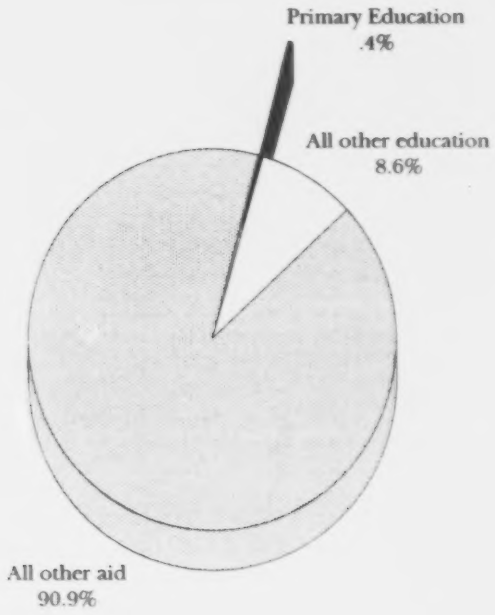
Note: Bilateral includes only OECD/DAC countries; Multilateral includes development banks, WFP, UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNICEF.

Sources: OECD, UNESCO, World Bank

The comparative neglect of primary education by international funding sources – and negligible support for other forms of basic learning – is disconcerting, but not attributable to any conscious policy or hostility on their part. One plausible explanation is that secondary and higher-level institutions have a comparative advantage in attracting external funding. Also, the sheer number and geographic dispersion of primary schools and the low foreign exchange component needed for their development have probably caused external agencies to give primary education a relatively low priority.

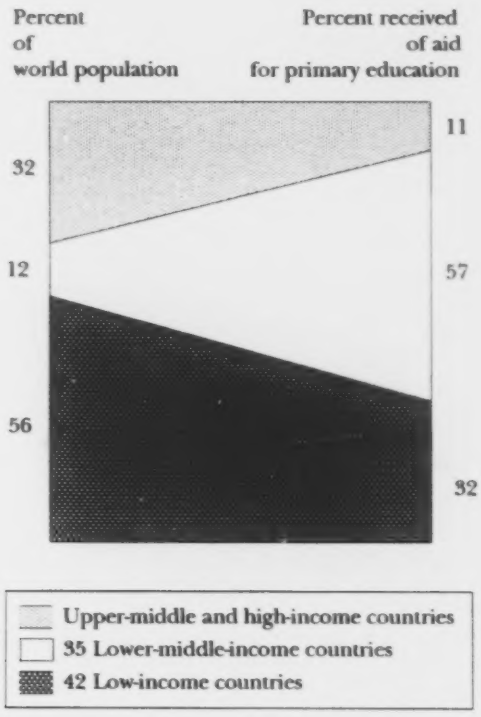
*The prospects for increased external assistance* are, of course, more difficult to ascertain than the needs. As explained in Chapter 1, international relations appear to be improving, and there are good grounds to believe that some resources can now be shifted from military to more productive uses, including social development – a shift which, ironically, may be more effective in increasing domestic and in-

**Chart 7: Percent of Aid to Primary Education (1981-1986)**




Sources: OECD, UNESCO, World Bank.

**Chart 8: Distribution of Aid to Primary Education**




Sources: OECD, UNESCO, World Bank.

ternational security. Between 1981 and 1986, the industrialized countries spent an estimated $3,546,000 million on military expenditures, while all external financial assistance for education in the same period was about $24,470 million, less than 1 percent of the former figure. In 1986 alone, the industrial countries had military expenditures estimated at $666,000 million, about 5.7 percent of their aggregate GNP, slightly more than they spent on their own education systems.

These figures suggest that even a very slight reduction in military budgets could release considerable funds for other purposes. If a small fraction were channeled into development assistance for education in the economically poorer countries, it would be possible to achieve the ambitious, but affordable, goal of universal primary education with an acceptable degree of quality. Of course, this is not the only scenario for finding the necessary funds, but it illustrates the *fiscal feasibility* of a major sustained effort to achieve education for all.

*(ii) Concerted and sustained long-term support for national and regional actions*

Meeting the basic learning needs of all people in all countries is obviously a long-term undertaking. It requires a well planned effort and a sustained commitment by governments and their domestic and external partners to work together to reach the established targets.

External agencies and institutions that agree to participate in this global endeavour should be prepared to plan and provide long-term support for the kinds of national and regional actions outlined in the preceding sections. Certain priority areas for international co-operation are presented below.

Increased and targeted external aid should be provided to countries needing help to implement their national plan of action for basic education. These countries will need support over the entire period of their plans, to assist them in meeting their established targets. In the aggregate, this support could probably be financed within current levels of external assistance to education and training, if most or all of these funds were shifted from post-primary levels to basic education. However, what is required is a substantial increase in *overall* external assistance for education. A large proportion of the new funds should be dedicated to developing basic education in the most disadvantaged nations, with emphasis on the following areas:

a. Supporting the design or revision of national multisectoral plans of action, which should be ready very early in the 1990s. Both financial and technical assistance may be needed by many less developed countries, particularly for data collection and analysis, as well as for organizing a domestic consultation process.

b. Supporting national efforts and related inter-country co-operation to attain a satisfactory level of quality and relevance in primary education. Experiences involving the participation of families, local communities, and non-governmental organizations in increasing the relevance and improving the quality of education could profitably be shared among countries.

c. Supporting the economically poorer countries in their efforts to provide universal primary education. International funding agencies should consider negotiating arrangements to provide long-term support, on a case-by-case basis, to help countries move toward universal primary education according to their own timetable. The external agencies should examine current assistance practices in order to find ways of effectively assisting basic education programmes which do not require capital- and technology-intensive assistance, but often need longer-term budgetary support. In this context, greater attention should be given to criteria for development co-operation in education to include more than mere economic considerations.

d. Supporting programmes designed to meet the basic learning needs of disadvantaged groups, out-of-school youth, and adults with little or no access to basic learning opportunities. All partners can share their experience and expertise in designing and implementing innovative measures and activities, and focus their funding for basic education on specific categories and groups (e.g., women, the rural poor, the disabled) to improve significantly the learning opportunities and conditions available for them.

e. Supporting education programmes for women and girls. These programmes should be designed to eliminate the social and cultural barriers which have discouraged or even excluded women and girls from benefits of regular education programmes, as well as to promote equal opportunities in all aspects of their lives.

f. Supporting education programmes for refugees. The programmes run by such organizations as the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) and the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine (UNRWA) need more substantial and reliable long-term financial support for this recognized international responsibility. Where countries of refuge need international financial and technical assistance to cope with the basic needs of refugees, including their learning needs, the international community can help to share this burden through increased cooperation. The world community will also endeavour to ensure that people under occupation or displaced by war and other calamities continue to have access to basic education programmes that preserve their cultural identity.

g. Supporting basic education programmes of all kinds in countries with high rates of illiteracy (as in sub-Saharan Africa) and with large illiterate populations (as in South Asia). Substantial assistance will be needed to reduce significantly the world's large number of illiterate adults.

h. Supporting the building of capacities for research and planning and the experimentation of small-scale innovations. The success of Education for All actions will ultimately be determined by the capacity of each country to design and implement by the capacity of each country to design and implement programs that reflect national conditions. A strengthened knowledge base nourished by research findings and the lessons of experiments and innovations as well as the availbility of competent educational planners will be essential in this respect.

*The co-ordination of external aid to education* is too often neglected, but greater co-operation among external and domestic partners would be mutually beneficial. Normally, the central authorities of the host country should take the lead. The fourth cycle of country programming of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), beginning in 1990, is a convenient time to review the needs of individual countries for external technical assistance related to education and training. The National Technical Co-operation Assessments and Programmes ("natcaps"), meetings of donors and country authorities convened by UNDP, and the country roundtables convened by the World Bank, could also focus more external aid on programmes and projects for meeting basic learning needs.

The newly created Task Force of Donors to African Education is an informal structure to develop co-ordination and more systematic planning of external assistance. Several development agencies have begun to work together in this Task Force to follow up the World Bank's policy study *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa* (1988). They intend to encourage interested countries to create education sector consultative groups, led by the host government. The Task Force members have also established several informal working groups, each focussing on a particular task or aspect of co-operation in the field of education. For example, there are working groups for educational development activities in Africa, mobilization of resources to help countries prepare educational development strategies, improvement of education statistics, and school examinations and certification procedures.

*(iii) Enhancing national capacities*

The external aid discussed above cannot be fully effective unless the countries concerned have the necessary capacities to identify critical needs, negotiate appropriate assistance, and manage the resources thus acquired. Therefore, international support should be provided, on request, to countries seeking to develop their national capacities for planning and managing basic education programmes and services. Such support could include training in, and institutional development for, data collection and analysis, management information systems, and the application of other modern management methods.

Most developing countries could well use assistance to develop their capacities for educational research and evaluation, and for monitoring how their education systems function. These capabilities will be in much demand to support quality improvements in primary education and to introduce innovative out-of-school programmes. In addition to direct assistance to countries and institutions, international financial aid can also be usefully channelled to support the activities of the existing regional mechanisms that organize joint research, training and information exchanges.

*(iv) Consultations on policy issues*

To reach and sustain the level of political commitment and resource allocation required for a serious long-term effort to meet basic learning needs for all, the international community must arrange regular communication and consultations among the various partners involved. If no single forum can serve this purpose for all partners, several existing fora with overlapping memberships could. The regional bodies mentioned earlier have an important role to play in this regard, and certain international forums, such as the biannual International Conference on

Education, enable representatives of all countries to consult on policy issues and to exchange information and experience. In addition, the International Task Force on Literacy, created especially for the International Literacy Year, brings together regional and international nongovernmental organizations. Its periodic meetings and publications promote consultation and communication through an extensive network of national affiliates.

Another forum for policy consultations is the International Working Group on Education, an informal mechanism for discussion and information exchange among multilateral and bilateral development agencies concerned with education and training. The Development Assistance Committee, which brings together representatives of donor agencies from some 20 industrial countries belonging to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, could also deal with general policy issues concerning assistance to education and training in developing countries.

Finally, the process leading to the World Conference on Education for All has, itself, helped stimulate regional and global communication and consultation. However, in order to expand the Education for All initiative and maintain its momentum, the international community will need to make appropriate arrangements to ensure co-operation among the interested parties, using the existing mechanisms insofar as possible to: (a) continue advocacy of basic Education for All, building on the momentum generated by the World Conference; (b) facilitate sharing information on the progress made in achieving basic education targets set by countries for themselves and on the resources and organizational requirements for successful initiatives; (c) encourage new partners to join this global endeavor; and (d) ensure that all partners are fully aware of the importance of maintaining strong support for basic education.

*(v) Co-operation within the international context*

Virtually all improvements in international relations and trade, as discussed earlier, will facilitate efforts to achieve education for all. The international community can make a particularly significant contribution in this regard by supporting measures and arrangements that promote the relaxation of tensions between and within countries, better communications and terms of trade between nations, and ecologically sound, equitable and sustainable development. In such an international context, it will be far easier to move systematically to provide education for all.

The strategies outlined in this chapter are incorporated into the *Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs*, that was discussed during a series of regional consultations in late 1989 and agreed by the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 5-9, March 1990. The challenge of the *Framework* is summarized in its conclusion:

> There will never be a better time to renew commitment to the inevitable and long-term effort to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults. This effort will require a much greater and wiser investment of resources in basic education and training than ever before, but benefits will begin accruing immediately and will extend well into the future – where the global challenges of today will be met, in good measure, by the world community's commitment and perseverance in attaining its goal of education for all.

# Annex 1

# Basic Data

**Country Key**

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Afghanistan | 38 | Ethiopia | 1 | Lesotho | 30 | Singapore | 101 |
| Algeria | 84 | Finland | 111 | Liberia | 87 | Somalia | 19 |
| Albania | 121 | France | 109 | Libya | 91 | South Africa | 75 |
| Angola | 122 | Gabon | 86 | Madagascar | 12 | Spain | 96 |
| Argentina | 82 | German | | Malawi | 6 | Sri Lanka | 88 |
| Australia | 105 | Democratic Republic | 126 | Malaysia | 78 | Sudan | 27 |
| Austria | 108 | Germany, | | Mali | 18 | Sweden | 115 |
| Bangladesh | 5 | Federal Republic of | 110 | Mauritania | 35 | Switzerland | 120 |
| Belgium | 106 | Ghana | 32 | Mauritius | 69 | Syrian Arab Republic | 72 |
| Benin | 24 | Greece | 89 | Mexico | 74 | Tanzania | 10 |
| Bhutan | 2 | Guatemala | 59 | Mongolia | 128 | Thailand | 55 |
| Bolivia | 44 | Guinea | 40 | Morocco | 48 | Togo | 20 |
| Botswana | 63 | Haiti | 29 | Mozambique | 9 | Trinidad & Tobago | 90 |
| Brazil | 78 | Honduras | 53 | Myanmar | 39 | Tunisia | 64 |
| Bulgaria | 123 | Hong Kong | 102 | Nepal | 7 | Turkey | 65 |
| Burkina Faso | 11 | Hungary | 80 | Netherlands | 107 | Uganda | 17 |
| Burundi | 14 | India | 21 | New Zealand | 100 | Union of Soviet | |
| Cameroon | 60 | Indonesia | 36 | Nicaragua | 54 | Socialist Republics | 129 |
| Canada | 114 | Iran, Islamic Republic of | 93 | Niger | 16 | United Arab Emirates | 117 |
| Central African Republic | 25 | Iraq | 94 | Nigeria | 31 | United Kingdom | 104 |
| Chad | 3 | Ireland | 97 | Norway | 118 | United States | 119 |
| Chile | 67 | Israel | 99 | Oman | 92 | Uruguay | 79 |
| China | 18 | Italy | 103 | Pakistan | 28 | Venezuela | 88 |
| Colombia | 66 | Jamaica | 58 | Panama | 81 | Viet Nam | 42 |
| Congo, People's | | Japan | 116 | Papua New Guinea | 50 | Yemen Arab Republic | 47 |
| Republic of the | 57 | Jordan | 70 | Paraguay | 61 | Yemen, People's | |
| Costa Rica | 71 | Kampuchea, Democratic | 41 | Peru | 68 | Democratic Republic of | 34 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | 52 | Kenya | 26 | Philippines | 46 | Yugoslavia | 83 |
| Cuba | 124 | Korea, Democratic | | Poland | 76 | Zaire | 4 |
| Czechoslovakia | 125 | People's Republic of | 127 | Portugal | 87 | Zambia | 15 |
| Denmark | 113 | Korea, Republic of | 85 | Romania | 95 | Zimbabwe | 45 |
| Dominican Republic | 51 | Kuwait | 112 | Rwanda | 22 | | |
| Ecuador | 62 | Lao, People's | | Saudi Arabia | 98 | | |
| Egypt, Arab Republic of | 49 | Democratic Republic | 8 | Senegal | 43 | | |
| El Salvador | 56 | Lebanon | 77 | Sierra Leone | 23 | | |

**Table 1: Background National Characteristics**

| Case | Country | GNP per capita: US$ (1987) | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1965-80 | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1980-87 | Average inflation rate (%) 1980-87 | Population (millions) mid-1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 1 | Ethiopia | 130 | 0.4 | (1.3) | 2.6 | 44.7 |
| 2 | Bhutan | 150 | - | 5.5 | - | 1.5 |
| 3 | Chad | 150 | (1.9) | 1.1 | 5.3 | 5.4 |
| 4 | Zaire | 150 | (1.3) | (2.5) | 53.5 | 33.8 |
| 5 | Bangladesh | 160 | (0.3) | 0.9 | 11.1 | 109.6 |
| 6 | Malawi | 160 | 3.2 | (0.8) | 12.4 | 7.9 |
| 7 | Nepal | 160 | 0.0 | 1.8 | 8.8 | 18.2 |
| 8 | Lao PDR | 170 | - | - | 46.5 | 3.8 |
| 9 | Mozambique | 170 | - | (8.2) | 26.9 | 14.8 |
| 10 | Tanzania | 180 | 0.8 | (2.3) | 24.9 | 25.4 |
| 11 | Burkina Faso | 190 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 4.4 | 8.5 |
| 12 | Madagascar | 210 | (0.4) | (3.8) | 17.8 | 11.2 |
| 13 | Mali | 210 | 2.1 | 0.2 | 4.2 | 8.8 |
| 14 | Burundi | 250 | 2.4 | 0.0 | 7.5 | 5.1 |
| 15 | Zambia | 250 | (1.2) | (5.5) | 28.7 | 7.9 |
| 16 | Niger | 260 | (2.5) | (5.3) | 4.1 | 6.7 |
| 17 | Uganda | 260 | (2.2) | (1.9) | 95.2 | 17.2 |
| 18 | China | 290 | 4.1 | 9.1 | 4.2 | 1,104.0 |
| 19 | Somalia | 290 | (0.1) | (2.6) | 37.8 | 7.1 |
| 20 | Togo | 290 | 1.7 | (3.2) | 6.6 | 3.2 |
| 21 | India | 300 | 1.5 | 3.1 | 7.7 | 818.8 |
| 21 | Rwanda | 300 | 1.6 | (0.9) | 4.5 | 6.8 |
| 23 | Sierra Leone | 300 | 0.7 | (1.0) | 50.0 | 3.9 |
| 24 | Benin | 310 | (0.3) | (0.9) | 8.2 | 4.4 |
| 25 | Central African Rep. | 330 | 0.8 | (0.7) | 7.9 | 2.8 |
| 26 | Kenya | 330 | 3.1 | (0.6) | 10.3 | 23.1 |
| 27 | Sudan | 330 | 0.8 | (4.3) | 31.7 | 23.8 |
| 28 | Pakistan | 350 | 1.8 | 3.3 | 7.3 | 114.9 |
| 29 | Haiti | 360 | 0.9 | (2.1) | 7.9 | 6.3 |
| 30 | Lesotho | 370 | 6.8 | (0.7) | 12.3 | 1.7 |
| 31 | Nigeria | 370 | 4.2 | (4.2) | 10.1 | 105.5 |
| 32 | Ghana | 390 | (0.8) | (2.1) | 48.3 | 14.1 |
| 33 | Sri Lanka | 400 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 11.8 | 16.8 |
| 34 | Yemen, PDR | 420 | - | (6.1) | 5.0 | 2.3 |
| 35 | Mauritania | 440 | (0.1) | (1.7) | 9.8 | 1.9 |
| 36 | Indonesia | 450 | 5.2 | 1.9 | 8.5 | 175.0 |
| 37 | Liberia | 450 | 0.5 | (5.5) | 1.5 | 2.4 |
| 38 | Afghanistan | - | 0.6 | - | - | 15.1 |
| 39 | Myanmar | - | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.1 * | 40.0 |
| 40 | Guinea | - | 1.3 | - | - | 6.5 |
| 41 | Kampuchea, Dem. | - | - | - | - | 7.9 |
| 42 | Viet Nam | - | - | - | - | 64.2 |

* See Technical Notes.

| *Area ('000 km²)* | *Population density (per km²)* | *Population annual growth rate (1980-88)* | *Percent of population urbanized (1988)* | *Percent access total/rural (1980-87)* | | *Radio/TV per 1,000 (1987)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | *to water* | *to health svcs.* | |
| 1,222 | 37 | 1.8 | 12 | 6/1 | 46/- | 193/2 |
| 47 | 32 | 1.9 | 5 | 15/14 | 19/- | 15/1 |
| 1,284 | 4 | 2.3 | 31 | 26/- | - | 237/1 |
| 2,345 | 14 | 3.1 | 39 | 9/5 | 26/17 | 98/1 |
| 144 | 761 | 2.7 | 13 | 41/43 | 45/- | 40/3 |
| 119 | 66 | 3.2 | 14 | 51/49 | 80/- | 197/- |
| 141 | 129 | 2.6 | 9 | 34/32 | - | 31/1 |
| 237 | 16 | 2.1 | 18 | 21/20 | - | 123/2 |
| 802 | 18 | 2.6 | 24 | 13/7 | 30/- | 38/1 |
| 945 | 27 | 3.7 | 30 | 50/39 | 76/72 | 16/1 |
| 274 | 31 | 2.5 | 9 | 20/15 | 49/48 | 24/5 |
| 587 | 19 | 3.1 | 24 | 18/- | 56/- | 193/6 |
| 1,240 | 7 | 2.9 | 19 | 12/9 | 15/- | 37/0 |
| 28 | 182 | 2.8 | 7 | 39/22 | 61/- | 56/0 |
| 753 | 10 | 3.9 | 54 | 47/33 | 75/- | 73/15 |
| 1,267 | 5 | 2.9 | 18 | 34/33 | 41/30 | 62/3 |
| 236 | 73 | 3.4 | 10 | 16/7 | 61/57 | 96/6 |
| 9,561 | 115 | 1.3 | 21 | - | - | 184/17 |
| 638 | 11 | 3.5 | 35 | 36/21 | 27/15 | 38/0 |
| 57 | 56 | 3.0 | 24 | 35/26 | 61/- | 178/5 |
| 3,288 | 249 | 2.2 | 27 | 56/47 | - | 77/7 |
| 26 | 262 | 3.4 | 7 | 59/60 | 27/25 | 54/- |
| 72 | 54 | 2.4 | 31 | 22/16 | - | 216/9 |
| 113 | 39 | 3.0 | 40 | 18/15 | 18/- | 75/4 |
| 623 | 4 | 2.3 | 45 | 16/- | 45/- | 60/2 |
| 583 | 40 | 4.1 | 22 | 28/21 | - | 90/6 |
| 2,506 | 9 | 3.0 | 22 | 21/10 | 51/40 | 229/52 |
| 804 | 143 | 3.7 | 31 | 53/40 | 55/35 | 86/14 |
| 28 | 225 | 1.8 | 29 | 35/25 | 70/70 | 41/4 |
| 30 | 57 | 2.8 | 19 | 14/11 | - | 68/1 |
| 924 | 114 | 3.4 | 34 | 33/25 | 40/30 | 163/6 |
| 239 | 59 | 3.4 | 33 | 50/39 | 60/45 | 293/13 |
| 66 | 255 | 1.6 | 21 | 36/26 | 93/- | 187/31 |
| 333 | 7 | 2.9 | 42 | 46/32 | 30/- | 154/21 |
| 1,031 | 2 | 2.6 | 39 | - | 30/- | 139/1 |
| 1,919 | 91 | 1.8 | 27 | 36/30 | 75/- | 145/40 |
| 111 | 22 | 3.2 | 43 | 20/- | 39/30 | 224/18 |
| 648 | - | (0.8) | 21 | 19/10 | 29/17 | 102/8 |
| 677 | 59 | 2.1 | 24 | 29/27 | 33/11 | 79/1 |
| 246 | 26 | 2.4 | 24 | 15/2 | - | 33/2 |
| 181 | - | 2.6 | 11 | 3/2 | 53/50 | 106/8 |
| 330 | 195 | 2.2 | 21 | 41/32 | 80/75 | 99/34 |

**Table 1 (continued): Background National Characteristics**

| Case | Country | GNP per capita: US$ (1987) | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1965-80 | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1980-87 | Average inflation rate (%) 1980-87 | Population (millions) mid-1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 43 | Senegal | 520 | (0.5) | 0.1 | 9.1 | 7.0 |
| 44 | Bolivia | 580 | 1.7 | (4.7) | 601.8 | 6.9 |
| 45 | Zimbabwe | 580 | 1.7 | (0.3) | 12.4 | 9.1 |
| 46 | Philippines | 590 | 3.2 | (3.1) | 16.7 | 59.5 |
| 47 | Yemen Arab Rep. | 590 | 6.5 | 2.1 | 11.4 | 7.5 |
| 48 | Morocco | 610 | 2.7 | 0.5 | 7.3 | 23.9 |
| 49 | Egypt, Arab Rep. | 680 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 9.2 | 51.5 |
| 50 | Papua New Guinea | 700 | - | 0.0 | 4.4 | 3.8 |
| 51 | Dominican Republic | 730 | 3.8 | (1.4) | 16.3 | 6.9 |
| 52 | Côte d'Ivoire | 740 | 2.8 | (3.7) | 4.4 | 11.6 |
| 53 | Honduras | 810 | 1.1 | (2.0) | 4.9 | 4.8 |
| 54 | Nicaragua | 830 | (0.7) | 4.7 | 86.6 | 3.6 |
| 55 | Thailand | 850 | 4.4 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 54.1 |
| 56 | El Salvador | 860 | 1.5 | (1.9) | 16.5 | 5.0 |
| 57 | Congo, People's Rep. | 870 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.9 |
| 58 | Jamaica | 940 | (0.1) | (2.4) | 19.4 | 2.4 |
| 59 | Guatemala | 950 | 3.0 | (3.6) | 12.7 | 8.7 |
| 60 | Cameroon | 970 | 2.4 | 4.5 | 8.1 | 10.7 |
| 61 | Paraguay | 990 | 4.1 | (2.7) | 21.0 | 4.0 |
| 62 | Ecuador | 1,040 | 5.4 | (1.7) | 29.5 | 10.2 |
| 63 | Botswana | 1,050 | 9.9 | (8.3) | 8.4 | 1.2 |
| 64 | Tunisia | 1,180 | 4.7 | 0.7 | 8.2 | 7.8 |
| 65 | Turkey | 1,210 | 3.6 | 3.0 | 37.4 | 53.5 |
| 66 | Colombia | 1,240 | 3.7 | 0.5 | 23.7 | 30.6 |
| 67 | Chile | 1,310 | 0.0 | (1.1) | 20.6 | 12.7 |
| 68 | Peru | 1,470 | 0.8 | (1.0) | 101.5 | 21.3 |
| 69 | Mauritius | 1,490 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 8.1 | 1.1 |
| 70 | Jordan | 1,560 | 5.8 | (0.7) | 2.8 | 3.9 |
| 71 | Costa Rica | 1,610 | 3.3 | (0.1) | 28.6 | 2.9 |
| 72 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 1,640 | 5.1 | (3.2) | 11.0 | 11.6 |
| 73 | Malaysia | 1,810 | 4.7 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 16.6 |
| 74 | Mexico | 1,830 | 3.6 | (1.6) | 68.9 | 84.9 |
| 75 | South Africa | 1,890 | 3.2 | (1.3) | 13.8 | 33.7 |
| 76 | Poland | 1,930 | - | (0.4) | 29.2 | 38.0 |
| 77 | Lebanon | - | - | - | - | 2.8 |
| Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 78 | Brazil | 2,020 | 6.3 | 1.0 | 166.3 | 144.4 |
| 79 | Uruguay | 2,190 | 2.5 | (2.3) | 54.5 | 3.1 |
| 80 | Hungary | 2,240 | 5.1 | 1.9 | 5.7 | 10.6 |
| 81 | Panama | 2,240 | 2.8 | 0.3 | 3.3 | 2.3 |
| 82 | Argentina | 2,390 | 1.7 | (1.8) | 298.7 | 31.5 |

* See Technical Notes.

| Area ('000 km²) | Population density (per km²) | Population annual growth rate (1980-88) | Percent of population urbanized (1988) | Percent access total/rural (1980-87) | | Radio/TV per 1,000 (1987) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | to water | to health svcs. | |
| 196 | 36 | 2.6 | 38 | 42/27 | - | 103/32 |
| 1,099 | 6 | 2.7 | 50 | 49/14 | 63/36 | 527/77 |
| 391 | 23 | 3.1 | 27 | 52/- | 71/62 | 85/22 |
| 300 | 198 | 2.6 | 41 | 66/54 | - | 135/36 |
| 195 | 38 | 2.9 | 23 | 31/21 | 30/24 | 34/7.5 |
| 447 | 53 | 2.6 | 47 | 27/2 | 70/50 | 206/56 |
| 1,001 | 51 | 2.7 | 48 | 76/64 | - | 310/83 |
| 462 | 8 | 2.6 | 15 | 16/10 | - | 84/1.9 |
| 49 | 141 | 2.3 | 59 | 62/32 | 80/- | 164/79 |
| 323 | 36 | 4.2 | 45 | 19/10 | 30/11 | 131/54 |
| 112 | 43 | 3.5 | 42 | 69/55 | 73/65 | 376/67 |
| 130 | 28 | 3.3 | 59 | 56/10 | 83/60 | 237/60 |
| 514 | 105 | 1.8 | 22 | 66/70 | 70/- | 174/103 |
| 21 | 238 | 1.3 | 44 | 40/22 | 56/40 | 401/82 |
| 342 | 6 | 2.6 | 41 | 21/7 | 83/70 | 120/3.3 |
| 11 | 218 | 1.5 | 51 | 86/- | - | 400/108 |
| 109 | 80 | 2.8 | 41 | 52/27 | 34/25 | 65/37 |
| 475 | 23 | 2.7 | 47 | 26/- | 41/39 | 125/12 |
| 407 | 10 | 3.1 | 46 | 26/10 | 61/38 | 165/24 |
| 284 | 36 | 2.8 | 55 | 47/16 | 62/30 | 292/81 |
| 600 | 2 | 3.6 | 22 | 57/47 | 88/85 | 130/6.9 |
| 164 | 48 | 2.5 | 54 | 75/50 | 90/80 | 171/68 |
| 781 | 69 | 2.3 | 47 | 78/63 | - | 160/172 |
| 1,139 | 27 | 2.1 | 69 | 70/28 | 60/- | 167/108 |
| 757 | 17 | 1.7 | 85 | 94/71 | - | 335/163 |
| 1,285 | 17 | 2.6 | 69 | 55/18 | -/17 | 241/84 |
| 2 | 550 | 1.5 | 42 | 95/95 | 100/100 | 263/188 |
| 98 | 40 | 3.7 | 67 | 93/80 | 97/95 | 237/69 |
| 51 | 57 | 2.8 | 52 | 91/82 | 80/63 | 258/79 |
| 185 | 63 | 3.5 | 51 | 75/54 | 75/60 | 231/58 |
| 330 | 50 | 2.3 | 41 | 69/53 | - | 436/140 |
| 1,973 | 43 | 2.3 | 72 | 75/40 | 45/- | 241/120 |
| 1,221 | 28 | 2.2 | 58 | - | - | 319/97 |
| 313 | 121 | 0.8 | 62 | - | - | 289/263 |
| 10 | - | 0.7 | 83 | 92/85 | - | 772/302 |
| 8,512 | 17 | 2.2 | 75 | 77/53 | - | 368/191 |
| 176 | 18 | 0.7 | 85 | 80/13 | 80/- | 594/173 |
| 93 | 114 | (0.1) | 59 | - | - | 586/402 |
| 77 | 30 | 2.1 | 54 | 82/65 | 80/64 | 220/163 |
| 2,767 | 11 | 1.4 | 86 | 64/17 | 71/21 | 659/217 |

**Table 1 (continued): Background National Characteristics**

| Case | Country | GNP per capita US$ (1987) | Average annual growth rate (%) 1965-80 | Average annual growth rate (%) 1980-87 | Average inflation rate (%) 1980-87 | Population (millions) mid-1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 83 | Yugoslavia | 2,480 | 5.2 | 0.0 | 57.2 | 23.6 |
| 84 | Algeria | 2,680 | 4.2 | 0.6 | 5.6 | 23.8 |
| 85 | Korea, Rep. of | 2,690 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 5.0 | 42.6 |
| 86 | Gabon | 2,700 | 5.6 | (3.1) | 2.6 | 1.1 |
| 87 | Portugal | 2,830 | 4.6 | 0.3 | 20.8 | 10.2 |
| 88 | Venezuela | 3,230 | 2.3 | (3.0) | 11.4 | 18.8 |
| 89 | Greece | 4,020 | 4.8 | (0.2) | 19.7 | 10.0 |
| 90 | Trinidad & Tobago | 4,210 | 3.1 | (6.5) | 6.2 | 1.2 |
| 91 | Libya | 5,460 | - | (10.5) | 0.1 | 4.2 |
| 92 | Oman | 5,810 | 9.0 | 10.3 | (6.5) | 1.4 |
| 93 | Iran, Islamic Rep. | - | 2.9 | 3.5 | - | 53.1 |
| 94 | Iraq | 3,020 * | - | - | - | 17.7 |
| 95 | Romania | 2,560 * | - | 3.0 * | - | 23.0 |
| | Industrial Market Economies | | | | | |
| 96 | Spain | 6,010 | 4.1 | 1.2 | 10.7 | 39.1 |
| 97 | Ireland | 6,120 | 2.8 | (0.7) | 10.2 | 3.7 |
| 98 | Saudi Arabia | 6,200 | - | (9.2) | (2.8) | 13.1 |
| 99 | Israel | 6,800 | 3.7 | 1.5 | 159.0 | 4.4 |
| 100 | New Zealand | 7,750 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 11.5 | 3.3 |
| 101 | Singapore | 7,940 | 8.3 | 5.6 | 1.3 | 2.6 |
| 102 | Hong Kong | 8,070 | 6.2 | 5.3 | 6.7 | 5.7 |
| 103 | Italy | 10,350 | 3.2 | 1.6 | 11.5 | 57.3 |
| 104 | United Kingdom | 10,420 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 5.7 | 56.8 |
| 105 | Australia | 11,100 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 7.8 | 16.4 |
| 106 | Belgium | 11,480 | 3.6 | 1.3 | 5.1 | 9.9 |
| 107 | Netherlands | 11,860 | 2.7 | 1.0 | 2.3 | 14.6 |
| 108 | Austria | 11,980 | 4.0 | 1.6 | 4.3 | 7.5 |
| 109 | France | 12,790 | 3.7 | 0.9 | 7.7 | 55.8 |
| 110 | Germany, Fed. Rep. | 14,400 | 3.0 | 1.8 | 2.9 | 60.7 |
| 111 | Finland | 14,470 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 7.2 | 5.0 |
| 112 | Kuwait | 14,610 | - | (3.2) | (4.6) | 1.9 |
| 113 | Denmark | 14,930 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 6.8 | 5.1 |
| 114 | Canada | 15,160 | 3.3 | 2.1 | 5.0 | 26.1 |
| 115 | Sweden | 15,550 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 7.9 | 8.3 |
| 116 | Japan | 15,760 | 5.1 | 3.2 | 1.4 | 122.4 |
| 117 | UAE | 15,830 | - | (9.3) | (0.3) | 1.5 |
| 118 | Norway | 17,190 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 6.1 | 4.2 |
| 119 | United States | 18,530 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 4.3 | 245.4 |
| 120 | Switzerland | 21,330 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 3.9 | 6.5 |
| | Other Economies | | | | | |
| 121 | Albania | - | - | - | - | 3.1 |
| 122 | Angola | 470 * | - | 0.1 | - | 9.5 |

* See Technical Notes.

| Area ('000 km²) | Population density (per km²) | Population annual growth rate (1980-88) | Percent of population urbanized (1988) | Percent access total/rural (1980-87) | | Radio/TV per 1,000 (1987) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | to water | to health svcs. | |
| 256 | 92 | 0.7 | 49 | - | - | 194/175 |
| 2,382 | 10 | 3.1 | 44 | 88/80 | 88/80 | 227/70 |
| 98 | 435 | 1.4 | 69 | -/60 | 93/86 | 986/104 |
| 268 | 4 | 3.8 | 44 | 92/- | 90/- | 119/23 |
| 92 | 111 | 0.6 | 32 | - | - | 212/159 |
| 912 | 21 | 2.8 | 89 | -/65 | - | 395/142 |
| 132 | 76 | 0.5 | 62 | - | - | 411/175 |
| 5 | 240 | 1.6 | 67 | 99/96 | - | 457/290 |
| 1,760 | 2 | 4.1 | 68 | 96/90 | - | -/- |
| 300 | 5 | 4.2 | 10 | 14/10 | 91/90 | 649/739 |
| 1,648 | 11 | 3.9 | 54 | 75/55 | 78/60 | 236/53 |
| 435 | 53 | 3.5 | 73 | 89/46 | 93/78 | 199/64 |
| 238 | 0 | 0.5 | 50 | - | - | 288/166 |
| 505 | 77 | 0.5 | 77 | - | - | 295/368 |
| 70 | 53 | 0.9 | 58 | - | - | 580/228 |
| 2,150 | 6 | 4.2 | 76 | 91/68 | 97/98 | 272/268 |
| 21 | 210 | 1.7 | 91 | - | - | 470/264 |
| 269 | 12 | 0.8 | 84 | - | - | 923/369 |
| 1 | 2,600 | 1.1 | 100 | 100/- | 100/- | 306/214 |
| a1 | 5,700 | 1.5 | 93 | 99/- | - | 633/241 |
| 301 | 190 | 0.2 | 68 | - | - | 786/257 |
| 245 | 232 | 0.1 | 92 | - | - | 1145/434 |
| 7,687 | 2 | 1.3 | 85 | - | - | 1270/483 |
| 31 | 319 | 0.1 | 97 | - | - | 465/320 |
| 41 | 356 | 0.4 | 88 | - | - | 908/469 |
| 84 | 89 | (0.1) | 57 | - | - | 358/480 |
| 547 | 102 | 0.4 | 74 | - | - | 893/333 |
| 249 | 244 | (0.2) | 86 | - | - | 954/385 |
| 337 | 15 | 0.4 | 66 | - | - | 991/374 |
| 18 | 106 | 4.3 | 95 | 100/- | 100/- | 327/261 |
| 43 | 119 | | 86 | - | - | 451/386 |
| 9,976 | 3 | 1.1 | 76 | - | - | 953/577 |
| 450 | 18 | 0.1 | 84 | - | - | 875/395 |
| 372 | 329 | 0.6 | 77 | - | - | 863/587 |
| 84 | 18 | 4.9 | 77 | 93/81 | 90/- | 319/106 |
| 324 | 13 | 0.3 | 74 | - | - | 790/348 |
| 9,363 | 26 | 0.9 | 74 | - | - | 2119/811 |
| 41 | 159 | 0.4 | 59 | - | - | 400/405 |
| 29 | 107 | 2.0 | 35 | - | - | 167/83 |
| 1,247 | 8 | 2.6 | 27 | 32/12 | 30/- | 49/5.4 |

**Table 1 (continued): Background National Characteristics**

| Case | Country | GNP per capita: US$ (1987) | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1965-80 | GNP per capita: Average annual growth rate (%) 1980-87 | Average inflation rate (%) 1980-87 | Population (millions) mid-1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 123 | Bulgaria | 4,150 * | – | – | – | 9.0 |
| 124 | Cuba | – | – | – | – | 10.2 |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | 5,820 * | – | – | – | 15.6 |
| 126 | German Dem. Rep. | 7,180 * | – | – | – | 16.6 |
| 127 | Korea, Dem. Rep. | – | – | – | – | 21.9 |
| 128 | Mongolia | – | – | – | – | 2.1 |
| 129 | USSR | 4,550 * | – | – | – | 283.7 |

* See Technical Notes.

| *Area ('000 km²)* | *Population density (per km²)* | *Population annual growth rate (1980-88)* | *Percent of population urbanized (1988)* | *Percent access total/rural (1980-87)* | | *Radio/TV per 1,000 (1987)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | *to water* | *to health svcs.* | |
| 111 | 81 | 0.2 | 69 | – | – | 221/189 |
| 115 | 89 | 0.5 | 74 | – | – | 334/193 |
| 128 | 122 | 0.2 | 67 | – | – | 256/285 |
| 108 | 154 | (0.1) | 78 | – | – | 663/754 |
| 121 | 181 | 2.4 | 66 | – | – | 110/12 |
| 1,565 | 1 | 2.9 | 51 | – | – | 128/31 |
| 22,402 | 13 | 0.8 | 67 | – | – | 685/314 |

**Table 2: Indicators of Financial Capacity**

| *Case* | *Country* | *General government consumption as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Agriculture as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Primary commodities as % of merchandise exports 1965/1987* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low-Income Economies | | | | |
| 1 | Ethiopia | 11/19 | 58/42 | 99/99 |
| 2 | Bhutan | - | -/51 | - |
| 3 | Chad | 20/8 | 42/43 | 97/- |
| 4 | Zaire | 9/17 | 21/32 | 92/94 |
| 5 | Bangladesh | 9/8 | 53/47 | -/26 |
| 6 | Malawi | 16/18 | 50/37 | 99/84 |
| 7 | Nepal | -/11 | 65/57 | 78/28 |
| 8 | Lao PDR | - | - | - |
| 9 | Mozambique | -/20 | -/50 | 97/- |
| 10 | Tanzania | 10/8 | 46/61 | 87/82 |
| 11 | Burkina Faso | 9/25 | 53/38 | 95/98 |
| 12 | Madagascar | 23/14 | 31/43 | 94/89 |
| 13 | Mali | 10/10 | 65/54 | 97/71 |
| 14 | Burundi | 7/17 | -/59 | 95/86 |
| 15 | Zambia | 15/13 | 14/12 | 100/97 |
| 16 | Niger | 6/12 | 68/34 | 95/99 |
| 17 | Uganda | 10/7 | 52/76 | 100/100 |
| 18 | China | 15/13 | 39/31 | 54/30 |
| 19 | Somalia | 8/11 | 71/65 | 86/99 |
| 20 | Togo | 8/21 | 45/29 | 97/94 |
| 21 | India | 10/13 | 47/30 | 51/31 |
| 21 | Rwanda | 14/12 | 75/37 | 100/99 |
| 23 | Sierra Leone | 8/7 | 34/45 | 39/41 |
| 24 | Benin | 11/10 | 59/46 | 95/80 |
| 25 | Central African Rep. | 22/13 | 46/41 | 46/66 |
| 26 | Kenya | 15/19 | 35/31 | 94/83 |
| 27 | Sudan | 12/15 | 54/37 | 99/93 |
| 28 | Pakistan | 11/13 | 40/23 | 64/33 |
| 29 | Haiti | 8/10 | - | 75/19 |
| 30 | Lesotho | 18/16 | 65/21 | - |
| 31 | Nigeria | 5/11 | 54/30 | 97/99 |
| 32 | Ghana | 14/9 | 44/51 | 98/97 |
| 33 | Sri Lanka | 13/10 | 28/27 | 99/60 |
| 34 | Yemen, PDR | - | -/16 | 94/100 |
| 35 | Mauritania | 19/13 | 32/37 | 99/97 |
| 36 | Indonesia | 5/10 | 56/26 | 96/72 |
| 37 | Liberia | 12/17 | 27/37 | 97/98 |
| 38 | Afghanistan | - | - | 86/- |
| 39 | Myanmar | - | - | 99/89 |
| 40 | Guinea | - | - | - |
| 41 | Kampuchea, Dem. | 16/- | - | - |
| 42 | Viet Nam | - | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| *Current account balance (millions of $) 1987* | *Total debt service as % of exports of goods and services 1987* | *Official development assistance (1987)* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *per capita (US$)* | *% of GNP* |
| (264) | 28.4 | 14.3 | 11.8 |
| (56) | – | 31.3 | 16.7 |
| (83) | 3.9 | 37.6 | 20.3 |
| (705) | 12.8 | 19.0 | 10.7 |
| (309) | 24.2 | 15.4 | 9.3 |
| (24) | 23.3 | 35.5 | 22.8 |
| (133) | 9.7 | 19.6 | 12.7 |
| (114) | – | 15.6 | 8.4 |
| (372) | – | 44.6 | 40.9 |
| (128) | 19.2 | 36.9 | 25.2 |
| (124) | 14.8 | 34.1 | 16.2 |
| (135) | 35.3 | 30.0 | 15.8 |
| (111) | 9.9 | 46.9 | 18.6 |
| (132) | 38.5 | 38.5 | 15.3 |
| 21 | – | 59.5 | 21.1 |
| (67) | 46.9 | 51.2 | 16.1 |
| (107) | 19.5 | 17.6 | 7.2 |
| 300 | 7.1 | 1.4 | 0.5 |
| 248 | 8.3 | 101.6 | 57.0 |
| (73) | 14.2 | 38.0 | 10.0 |
| (3,750) | 24.0 | 2.3 | 0.7 |
| (131) | 11.3 | 37.7 | 11.6 |
| (5) | 8.2 | 17.8 | 7.3 |
| (208) | 15.9 | 31.5 | 8.1 |
| (96) | 12.1 | 63.7 | 16.1 |
| (497) | 33.8 | 25.6 | 7.0 |
| (422) | 7.7 | 39.0 | 10.5 |
| (336) | 26.3 | 8.4 | 2.4 |
| (31) | 7.0 | 35.4 | 9.7 |
| (12) | 4.4 | 66.5 | 29.4 |
| (380) | 11.7 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| (275) | 20.3 | 27.5 | 7.4 |
| (378) | 20.2 | 30.7 | 7.5 |
| (122) | 38.2 | 35.2 | 8.1 |
| (73) | 18.2 | 95.6 | 19.0 |
| (1,837) | 35.2 | 7.3 | 1.8 |
| (118) | 2.5 | 33.6 | 6.9 |
| (556) | – | 2.4 | – |
| (208) | 59.3 | 9.3 | – |
| (53) | – | 33.0 | – |
| – | – | 1.8 | – |
| – | – | 1.8 | – |

**Table 2 (continued): Indicators of Financial Capacity**

| *Case* | *Country* | *General government consumption as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Agriculture as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Primary commodities as % of merchandise exports 1965/1987* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | |
| 43 | Senegal | 17/17 | 25/22 | 97/85 |
| 44 | Bolivia | 9/14 | 23/24 | 95/98 |
| 45 | Zimbabwe | 12/20 | 18/11 | 95/60 |
| 46 | Philippines | 9/8 | 26/24 | 95/38 |
| 47 | Yemen Arab Rep. | -/18 | -/28 | 100/22 |
| 48 | Morocco | 12/18 | 23/19 | 95/52 |
| 49 | Egypt, Arab Rep. | 19/14 | 29/21 | 80/81 |
| 50 | Papua New Guinea | 34/22 | 42/34 | 90/94 |
| 51 | Dominican Republic | 19/- | 23/17 | 98/78 |
| 52 | Côte d'Ivoire | 11/17 | 47/36 | 95/90 |
| 53 | Honduras | 10/16 | 40/22 | 96/88 |
| 54 | Nicaragua | 8/- | 25/21 | 94/90 |
| 55 | Thailand | 10/12 | 32/16 | 95/47 |
| 56 | El Salvador | 9/11 | 29/14 | 83/69 |
| 57 | Congo, People's Rep. | 14/21 | 19/12 | 37/84 |
| 58 | Jamaica | 8/15 | 10/6 | 69/35 |
| 59 | Guatemala | 7/8 | - | 86/65 |
| 60 | Cameroon | 13/11 | 33/24 | 94/91 |
| 61 | Paraguay | 7/6 | 37/27 | 92/88 |
| 62 | Ecuador | 9/12 | 27/16 | 98/96 |
| 63 | Botswana | 24/- | 34/3 | - |
| 64 | Tunisia | 15/16 | 22/18 | 82/39 |
| 65 | Turkey | 12/9 | 34/17 | 98/33 |
| 66 | Colombia | 8/10 | 30/19 | 93/79 |
| 67 | Chile | 11/11 | 9/- | 96/92 |
| 68 | Peru | 10/11 | 18/11 | 99/82 |
| 69 | Mauritius | 13/11 | 16/15 | 100/59 |
| 70 | Jordan | -/27 | -/9 | 81/44 |
| 71 | Costa Rica | 13/15 | 24/18 | 84/60 |
| 72 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 14/18 | 29/27 | 90/74 |
| 73 | Malaysia | 15/16 | 28/- | 94/66 |
| 74 | Mexico | 6/10 | 14/9 | 84/53 |
| 75 | South Africa | 11/19 | 10/6 | 68/21 |
| 76 | Poland | - | - | -/33 |
| 77 | Lebanon | 10/- | 12/- | 66/- |
| | Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | |
| 78 | Brazil | 11/12 | 19/11 | 92/55 |
| 79 | Uruguay | 15/13 | 15/13 | 95/55 |
| 80 | Hungary | -/10 | -/15 | -/29 |
| 81 | Panama | 11/- | 18/9 | 98/86 |
| 82 | Argentina | 8/6 | 17/13 | 94/69 |

See Technical Notes.

| *Current account balance (millions of $) 1987* | *Total debt service as % of exports of goods and services 1987* | *Official development assistance (1987)* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *per capita (US$)* | *% of GNP* |
| (316) | 22.3 | 92.4 | 13.6 |
| (485) | 22.1 | 47.3 | 7.1 |
| 50 | – | 32.6 | 5.0 |
| (539) | 25.7 | 13.3 | 2.2 |
| (607) | 24.8 | 41.2 | 8.2 |
| 164 | 30.8 | 17.2 | 2.4 |
| (2,705) | 21.5 | 35.2 | 4.9 |
| (326) | 37.4 | 87.0 | 10.6 |
| (119) | – | 19.3 | 2.6 |
| (624) | 40.8 | 22.8 | 2.5 |
| (183) | 26.1 | 55.0 | 6.4 |
| (693) | – | 40.2 | 4.4 |
| (586) | 20.6 | 9.4 | 1.1 |
| 127 | 21.0 | 86.4 | 9.0 |
| (245) | 18.6 | 75.2 | 7.0 |
| (96) | 27.5 | 70.4 | 5.9 |
| (464) | 25.8 | 28.5 | 3.4 |
| (1,112) | 27.9 | 19.6 | 1.7 |
| (411) | 21.7 | 20.9 | 1.8 |
| (1,176) | 21.9 | 20.5 | 1.9 |
| 597 | 3.7 | 135.6 | 10.1 |
| (62) | 29.4 | 37.0 | 2.9 |
| (984) | 34.0 | 7.9 | 0.6 |
| 255 | 36.3 | 2.6 | 0.2 |
| (811) | 26.4 | 1.7 | 0.1 |
| (1,914) | 12.9 | 14.4 | 0.6 |
| 72 | 6.5 | 62.5 | 3.7 |
| (350) | 21.8 | 157.0 | 12.0 |
| (225) | 14.3 | 87.5 | 5.3 |
| (465) | 16.5 | 61.9 | 2.9 |
| 2,336 | 20.0 | 22.0 | 1.2 |
| 3,884 | 38.4 | 1.9 | 0.1 |
| 3,027 | – | – | – |
| (578) | 14.7 | – | – |
| – | – | 37.5 | – |
| (1,275) | 33.2 | 2.0 | 0.1 |
| (124) | 25.7 | 5.9 | 0.2 |
| (676) | 26.7 | – | – |
| 342 | 6.5 | 17.7 | 0.7 |
| (4,285) | 52.0 | 3.2 | 0.1 |

**Table 2 (continued): Indicators of Financial Capacity**

| Case | Country | *General government consumption as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Agriculture as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Primary commodities as % of merchandise exports 1965/1987* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 83 | Yugoslavia | 18/14 | 23/11 | 44/22 |
| 84 | Algeria | 15/16 | 15/12 | 96/98 |
| 85 | Korea, Rep. of | 9/11 | 38/11 | 40/7 |
| 86 | Gabon | 11/23 | 26/11 | 89/89 |
| 87 | Portugal | 12/14 | -/9 | 38/19 |
| 88 | Venezuela | 10/10 | 6/6 | 98/92 |
| 89 | Greece | 12/20 | 24/16 | 86/46 |
| 90 | Trinidad And Tobago | 12/19 | 8/4 | 93/77 |
| 91 | Libya | 14/- | 5/- | 100/100 |
| 92 | Oman | - | 61/3 | -/93 |
| 93 | Iran, Islamic Rep. | 13/- | 26/- | 95/- |
| 94 | Iraq | 20/- | 18/- | 99/- |
| 95 | Romania | - | - | - |
| | Industrial Market Economies | | | |
| 96 | Spain | 8/14 | 15/6 | 60/28 |
| 97 | Ireland | 15/18 | -/10 | 66/31 |
| 98 | Saudi Arabia | 18/38 | 8/4 | 99/91 |
| 99 | Israel | 20/31 | - | 34/15 |
| 100 | New Zealand | 13/15 | -/8 | 95/75 |
| 101 | Singapore | 10/12 | 3/1 | 65/28 |
| 102 | Hong Kong | 7/7 | 2/0 | 13/8 |
| 103 | Italy | 14/17 | 10/4 | 22/12 |
| 104 | United Kingdom | 16/21 | 3/2 | 17/23 |
| 105 | Australia | 13/18 | 9/4 | 86/75 |
| 106 | Belgium | 13/16 | 5/2 | 24/20 |
| 107 | Netherlands | 15/16 | -/4 | 44/40 |
| 108 | Austria | 13/19 | 9/3 | 24/13 |
| 109 | France | 16/19 | 8/4 | 29/24 |
| 110 | Germany, Fed. Rep. | 15/20 | 4/2 | 12/10 |
| 111 | Finland | 14/21 | 16/7 | 43/20 |
| 112 | Kuwait | 13/- | 0/1 | 93/87 |
| 113 | Denmark | 16/25 | 9/5 | 57/39 |
| 114 | Canada | 14/20 | 6/3 | 63/39 |
| 115 | Sweden | 18/27 | 6/3 | 32/16 |
| 116 | Japan | 8/10 | 9/3 | 9/2 |
| 117 | United Arab Emirates | -/23 | -/2 | 100/83 |
| 118 | Norway | 15/21 | 8/4 | 49/62 |
| 119 | United States | 19/21 | 3/2 | 35/24 |
| 120 | Switzerland | 11/11 | - | 10/7 |
| | Other Economies | | | |
| 121 | Albania | - | - | - |
| 122 | Angola | - | - | 82/- |

See Technical Notes.

| *Current account balance (millions of $) 1987* | *Total debt service as % of exports of goods and services 1987* | *Official development assistance (1987)* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *per capita (US$)* | *% of GNP* |
| 819 | 19.4 | 1.5 | 0.1 |
| (406) | 49.0 | 9.6 | 0.3 |
| 9,854 | 27.5 | 0.3 | 0.0 |
| (210) | 5.1 | 76.8 | 2.3 |
| 641 | 38.9 | 6.4 | 0.2 |
| (1,125) | 32.4 | 1.0 | 0.0 |
| (1,298) | 37.8 | 3.4 | 0.1 |
| (184) | – | 28.0 | 0.8 |
| (54) | – | 1.6 | – |
| (966) | – | 11.7 | 0.2 |
| – | – | 1.5 | – |
| – | – | 5.3 | – |
| 1,489 | – | – | – |
| | | | |
| (51) | – | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 391 | – | – | – |
| (9,571) | – | 1.8 | 0.0 |
| (999) | 25.3 | 285.9 | 3.6 |
| (1,368) | – | – | – |
| 539 | 2.4 | 8.9 | 0.1 |
| 1,199 | – | 3.5 | 0.0 |
| (1,059) | – | – | – |
| (2,621) | – | – | – |
| (8,688) | – | – | – |
| 2,920 | – | – | – |
| 3,372 | – | – | – |
| (226) | – | – | – |
| (4,088) | – | – | – |
| 44,956 | – | – | – |
| (1,938) | – | – | – |
| 4,414 | – | 1.8 | 0.0 |
| (2,951) | – | – | – |
| (7,963) | – | – | – |
| (853) | – | – | – |
| 87,660 | – | – | – |
| 6,486 | – | 79.0 | 0.5 |
| (4,111) | – | – | – |
| (453,950) | – | – | – |
| 5,879 | – | – | – |
| | | | |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | 14.6 | – |

**Table 2 (continued): Indicators of Financial Capacity**

| *Case* | *Country* | *General government consumption as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Agriculture as % of GDP 1965/1987* | *Primary commodities as % of merchandise exports 1965/1987* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 123 | Bulgaria | – | – | – |
| 124 | Cuba | – | – | 96/– |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | – | – | – |
| 126 | German Dem. Rep. | – | – | – |
| 127 | Korea, Dem. Rep. | – | – | – |
| 128 | Mongolia | – | – | – |
| 129 | USSR | – | – | – |

See Technical Notes.

| *Current account balance (millions of $) 1987* | *Total debt service as % of exports of goods and services 1987* | *Official development assistance (1987)* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *per capita (US$)* | *% of GNP* |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | 1.8 | – |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | – | – |
| – | – | – | – |

**Table 3: Indicators of Educational Effort**

| Case Country | *Total education expenditures as % of GNP* | | *Total education as % of government expenditure* | | *Primary recurrent expenditures as % of total education recurrent expenditure* | | *Primary per pupil education expenditures (1985$)* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| Low Income Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 1 Ethiopia | 3.3 | 4.2 | 10.4 | 9.9 | 42.0 | 52.8 | 21.1 | 35.8 |
| 2 Bhutan | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 3 Chad | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 4 Zaire | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 5 Bangladesh | 1.5 | 2.2 | 8.2 | 10.5 | 45.3 | 39.1 | 7.1 | 10.5 |
| 6 Malawi | 3.3 | 3.3 | 12.9 | 8.5 | 38.9 | 47.0 | 13.9 | 14.0 |
| 7 Nepal | 1.8 | 2.8 | 12.4 | 10.8 | – | 35.7 | – | 13.3 |
| 8 Lao PDR | – | 1.1 | 1.3 | 6.6 | – | – | – | – |
| 9 Mozambique | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 10 Tanzania | 5.1 | 4.1 | 14.3 | 9.7 | 45.0 | 59.1 | 30.2 | 19.1 |
| 11 Burkina Faso | 2.6 | 2.5 | 19.8 | 21.0 | 32.3 | 39.2 | 56.3 | 38.2 |
| 12 Madagascar | 5.4 | 3.5 | – | – | 41.4 | 42.3 | 35.9 | – |
| 13 Mali | 3.7 | 3.2 | 30.8 | 17.3 | 38.8 | 48.4 | 80.4 | 72.7 |
| 14 Burundi | 3.0 | 2.9 | 17.5 | 15.5 | 42.7 | 45.0 | 53.4 | 31.0 |
| 15 Zambia | 4.5 | 5.4 | 7.6 | 16.3 | 45.3 | 44.2 | 66.2 | 44.4 |
| 16 Niger | 3.1 | – | 22.9 | – | 36.8 | – | 96.3 | – |
| 17 Uganda | 1.2 | 3.9 | 11.3 | 22.5 | 16.2 | 20.1 | 13.1 | 11.7 |
| 18 China | 2.5 | 2.7 | 6.1 | – | – | 28.5 | – | 13.4 |
| 19 Somalia | 1.0 | – | 8.7 | – | – | – | – | – |
| 20 Togo | 5.6 | 5.1 | 19.4 | 19.4 | 29.5 | 34.0 | 34.6 | 31.2 |
| 21 India | 2.8 | 3.4 | 10.0 | 9.4 | 36.9 | 43.3 | 23.8 | 31.0 |
| 21 Rwanda | 2.7 | 3.5 | 21.6 | 22.3 | 67.1 | 68.0 | 25.0 | 47.9 |
| 23 Sierra Leone | 3.8 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 24 Benin | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 25 Central African Rep. | 3.8 | 2.9 | 20.9 | 16.8 | 63.1 | 51.2 | 76.2 | 537.5 |
| 26 Kenya | 6.9 | 7.0 | 18.1 | 22.7 | 59.6 | 61.9 | 66.4 | 61.9 |
| 27 Sudan | 4.8 | – | 9.1 | – | 48.0 | 55.5 | 113.0 | 80.3 |
| 28 Pakistan | 2.0 | 2.1 | 5.0 | – | 39.4 | 41.3 | 28.1 | 37.1 |
| 29 Haiti | 1.5 | 1.9 | 14.9 | 20.6 | 59.3 | 56.8 | 15.8 | 26.0 |
| 30 Lesotho | 5.0 | 4.6 | 14.8 | – | 38.6 | 35.7 | 40.5 | 23.2 |
| 31 Nigeria | 3.3 | – | – | – | 17.2 | – | 49.1 | – |
| 32 Ghana | 3.1 | 3.4 | – | – | 29.3 | 29.3 | 54.1 | 27.7 |
| 33 Sri Lanka | 3.1 | 3.8 | 8.8 | 9.4 | – | – | – | – |
| 34 Yemen, PDR | 6.2 | – | 16.9 | – | – | – | – | – |
| 35 Mauritania | – | – | – | – | 35.4 | 36.2 | 131.7 | 80.6 |
| 36 Indonesia | 1.7 | – | 8.9 | – | – | – | – | – |
| 37 Liberia | 5.7 | – | 24.3 | – | 17.6 | – | 54.7 | – |
| 38 Afghanistan | 2.0 | – | 12.7 | 4.0 | 41.9 | – | 24.6 | – |
| 39 Myanmar | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 40 Guinea | – | 3.3 | – | 15.3 | 24.7 | 30.8 | 59.5 | 66.0 |

See Technical Notes.

| *Proportion of primary school pupils in private schools* | | *Average annual growth rates in total primary enrolments* | | *Student-teacher ratios-primary schools* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1975-80* | *1980-87* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| 15.6 | 10.4 | 14.5 | 4.4 | 64 | 49 |
| – | – | 15.2 | 4.4 | 36 | 37 |
| – | 5.5 | 3.0 | 7.9 | 64 | 68 |
| – | 4.0 | 3.4 | 0.0 | 42 | 37 |
| 14.6 | 13.0 | (0.3) | 1.6 | 54 | 48 |
| 6.8 | 6.1 | 4.8 | 4.0 | 65 | 63 |
| – | 1.2 | 14.5 | 9.0 | 38 | 36 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.6 | 2.2 | 30 | 27 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.0 | (0.2) | 81 | 63 |
| 0.2 | 0.1 | 16.2 | (0.9) | 41 | 33 |
| 8.4 | 9.1 | 7.4 | 10.7 | 54 | 65 |
| 12.7 | 15.1 | 7.3 | (1.9) | 44 | 40 |
| 4.2 | 3.9 | 2.9 | (0.8) | 42 | 38 |
| 4.3 | 1.0 | 6.3 | 17.2 | 37 | 62 |
| 0.6 | 0.6 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 49 | 47 |
| 3.0 | 2.7 | 10.0 | 4.4 | 41 | 38 |
| – | | 5.8 | 9.7 | 34 | 33 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (0.6) | (1.8) | 27 | 24 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.6 | (5.7) | 33 | 20 |
| 23.3 | 23.5 | 6.9 | (0.6) | 55 | 52 |
| – | – | 2.4 | 3.2 | 43 | 46 |
| – | 0.7 | 11.9 | 4.7 | 59 | 57 |
| – | – | 8.9 | 3.5 | 33 | – |
| 3.4 | 0.0 | 7.9 | 3.1 | 48 | 33 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 60 | 63 |
| – | – | 6.4 | 3.6 | 38 | 34 |
| 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.6 | 3.0 | 34 | 35 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 4.0 | 36 | 43 |
| 56.8 | 58.4 | 5.7 | 4.9 | 44 | 38 |
| 100.0 | – | 2.0 | 4.4 | 48 | 56 |
| – | – | 17.4 | (1.3) | 37 | 44 |
| – | 6.5 | 4.1 | 1.3 | 28 | 24 |
| 1.3 | 1.5 | 5.7 | (0.3) | 32 | 32 |
| – | – | 3.2 | 3.0 | 27 | 26 |
| – | 0.3 | 12.4 | 8.2 | 41 | 50 |
| 20.7 | 17.6 | 7.5 | 2.2 | 32 | 28 |
| 35.5 | – | 7.2 | 2.6 | 36 | – |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.3 | (7.9) | 32 | 37 |
| – | – | 3.6 | 3.0 | 52 | 45 |
| 0.0 | 0.5 | 5.3 | 1.7 | 36 | 40 |

**Table 3 (continued): Indicators of Educational Effort**

| Case Country | *Total education expenditures as % of GNP* | | *Total education as % of government expenditure* | | *Primary recurrent expenditures as % of total education recurrent expenditure* | | *Primary per pupil education expenditures (1985$)* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| 41 Kampuchea, Dem. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 42 Viet Nam | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 43 Senegal | - | - | - | - | 43.8 | - | 135.8 | - |
| 44 Bolivia | 4.4 | - | 25.3 | - | 58.9 | - | 120.9 | - |
| 45 Zimbabwe | 6.6 | 8.5 | 13.7 | 16.0 | 66.5 | 56.0 | 182.5 | 124.0 |
| 46 Philippines | 1.6 | 2.0 | 10.3 | - | 61.4 | 61.8 | 38.7 | 31.9 |
| 47 Yemen Arab Rep. | 7.4 | 6.0 | 15.8 | 23.5 | - | 47.6 | - | 103.1 |
| 48 Morocco | 6.4 | - | 18.5 | - | 35.4 | - | 146.0 | - |
| 49 Egypt, Arab Rep. | 5.7 | 5.5 | 9.4 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 50 Papua New Guinea | 4.7 | - | 14.2 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 51 Dominican Rep. | 2.3 | 1.6 | 16.0 | 10.0 | 36.8 | 44.7 | 34.7 | 26.4 |
| 52 Côte d'Ivoire | 7.0 | - | 22.6 | - | 46.8 | 40.2 | 266.4 | 132.2 |
| 53 Honduras | 3.2 | 4.9 | 14.2 | 19.5 | 61.9 | 46.6 | 72.6 | 102.5 |
| 54 Nicaragua | 3.2 | 6.2 | 10.4 | 12.0 | 44.7 | 36.7 | 54.5 | 112.0 |
| 55 Thailand | 3.4 | 3.6 | 20.6 | 17.9 | 57.8 | 59.0 | 60.6 | 123.0 |
| 56 El Salvador | 3.9 | - | 17.1 | - | 61.9 | - | 94.9 | - |
| 57 Congo, People's Rep. | 6.9 | - | 23.6 | - | 35.8 | - | 93.4 | - |
| 58 Jamaica | 6.9 | 5.2 | 13.1 | 11.0 | 33.7 | 34.5 | 159.3 | 127.2 |
| 59 Guatemala | 1.9 | - | 16.6 | - | 35.7 | - | 51.5 | - |
| 60 Cameroon | 3.2 | 3.6 | 20.3 | 17.8 | - | - | - | - |
| 61 Paraguay | 1.5 | 1.5 | 16.4 | 16.7 | - | 36.6 | - | 45.0 |
| 62 Ecuador | 5.6 | 3.5 | 33.3 | 21.3 | 20.6 | 37.1 | 78.6 | 63.3 |
| 63 Botswana | 7.1 | 7.7 | 16.0 | 14.4 | 52.1 | 36.8 | 112.1 | 89.1 |
| 64 Tunisia | 5.4 | 6.3 | 16.4 | - | 41.2 | 45.0 | 156.6 | 162.5 |
| 65 Turkey | 2.8 | 2.1 | 10.5 | - | 43.7 | 43.3 | 100.2 | 67.1 |
| 66 Colombia | 1.9 | 2.7 | 14.3 | 22.4 | 44.4 | 39.9 | 61.4 | 85.1 |
| 67 Chile | 4.6 | 4.4 | 11.9 | 15.3 | 42.7 | 51.0 | 228.1 | 155.2 |
| 68 Peru | 3.1 | 3.3 | 15.2 | 22.9 | 45.1 | 31.1 | 81.9 | 111.4 |
| 69 Mauritius | 5.3 | 3.5 | 11.6 | 10.0 | 44.1 | 44.2 | 181.8 | 174.9 |
| 70 Jordan | 6.5 | 6.9 | 11.3 | 13.0 | - | - | - | - |
| 71 Costa Rica | 7.8 | 4.6 | 22.2 | 21.6 | 28.0 | 34.4 | 262.9 | 165.2 |
| 72 Syrian Arab Rep. | 4.6 | 4.7 | 8.0 | 14.0 | 38.8 | 44.8 | 120.1 | 273.1 |
| 73 Malaysia | 6.0 | 6.6 | 14.7 | 16.3 | 35.0 | 37.9 | 206.2 | 297.9 |
| 74 Mexico | 2.9 | 3.4 | 16.7 | - | 39.7 | - | - | - |
| 75 South Africa | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 76 Poland | - | 4.4 | - | 12.5 | 28.7 | 32.8 | 166.1 | 149.2 |
| 77 Lebanon | - | - | 13.2 | 16.8 | - | - | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| *Proportion of primary school pupils in private schools* | | *Average annual growth rates in total primary enrolments* | | *Student-teacher ratios-primary schools* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1975-80* | *1980-87* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| – | – | – | – | – | – |
| – | 0.0 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 39 | 34 |
| 11.0 | 8.7 | 6.1 | 6.3 | 46 | 54 |
| – | 8.0 | 2.6 | 4.1 | 20 | 27 |
| 83.5 | 87.5 | 7.4 | 8.9 | 44 | 39 |
| – | 5.9 | 2.3 | 1.4 | 31 | 32 |
| 5.0 | 7.6 | 12.4 | 14.4 | 42 | 54 |
| 3.0 | 3.4 | 7.0 | 0.0 | 37 | 26 |
| 5.0 | 4.9 | 2.2 | 6.1 | 32 | 30 |
| 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.7 | 3.6 | 31 | 31 |
| 17.8 | 19.0 | 3.9 | 2.5 | 46 | 41 |
| 14.0 | 11.2 | 8.8 | 3.3 | 39 | 36 |
| 5.3 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 37 | 39 |
| 11.8 | 13.0 | 6.7 | 3.1 | 35 | 32 |
| 8.4 | 9.2 | 2.0 | (0.6) | 23 | 20 |
| 7.2 | 11.4 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 48 | 45 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 54 | 66 |
| 3.7 | 2.7 | (0.7) | (1.0) | 37 | 34 |
| 14.2 | 14.1 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 34 | 35 |
| 36.3 | 32.7 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 52 | 50 |
| 0.0 | 13.6 | 2.8 | 2.1 | 27 | 25 |
| 15.9 | 0.0 | 4.8 | 2.5 | 38 | 31 |
| 4.7 | 5.6 | 8.1 | 5.4 | 32 | 32 |
| 0.9 | 0.5 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 39 | 31 |
| 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 2.8 | 27 | 31 |
| 14.5 | 13.6 | 1.3 | (0.6) | 31 | 29 |
| 20.2 | 35.3 | (1.0) | (1.2) | 34 | 29 |
| 13.1 | 14.4 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 37 | 35 |
| 25.9 | 23.4 | (3.1) | 1.6 | 20 | 22 |
| 6.3 | 9.4 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 35 | 30 |
| 2.6 | 4.0 | (0.7) | 1.7 | 28 | 31 |
| 4.8 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 5.2 | 28 | 26 |
| – | – | 1.2 | 1.8 | 27 | 22 |
| 4.9 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 0.1 | 39 | 32 |
| – | – | (1.2) | 1.6 | 27 | 24 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (0.7) | 2.7 | 21 | 16 |
| 61.1 | 68.5 | (0.4) | (0.2) | 18 | 21 |

**Table 3 (continued): Indicators of Educational Effort**

| Case Country | *Total education expenditures as % of GNP* | | *Total education as % of government expenditure* | | *Primary recurrent expenditures as % of total education recurrent expenditure* | | *Primary per pupil education expenditures (1985$)* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 78 Brazil | 3.5 | 4.5 | – | 17.7 | – | – | – | – |
| 79 Uruguay | 2.2 | 3.1 | 10.0 | 15.0 | 48.4 | 36.1 | 309.7 | 213.6 |
| 80 Hungary | 4.7 | 5.6 | 5.2 | 6.3 | 39.1 | 36.6 | 284.6 | 336.6 |
| 81 Panama | 5.0 | 5.4 | 19.0 | 14.3 | 46.3 | 36.3 | 213.5 | 279.3 |
| 82 Argentina | 3.6 | – | 15.1 | – | 40.1 | – | 478.3 | – |
| 83 Yugoslavia | 4.7 | 4.5 | 32.5 | – | – | – | – | – |
| 84 Algeria | 7.8 | 9.8 | 24.3 | 27.8 | 28.5 | – | 196.3 | – |
| 85 Korea, Rep. of | 3.7 | 4.2 | 23.7 | 26.6 | 49.9 | 43.6 | 168.2 | 397.0 |
| 86 Gabon | 2.8 | 7.0 | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 87 Portugal | 4.4 | 4.5 | – | – | 52.8 | 48.5 | 386.5 | 567.8 |
| 88 Venezuela | 4.4 | 5.4 | 14.7 | 21.3 | 17.5 | – | 177.8 | – |
| 89 Greece | 2.2 | 2.9 | 8.4 | 7.5 | 36.9 | 30.4 | 331.5 | 350.2 |
| 90 Trinidad & Tobago | 4.0 | 5.8 | 11.5 | – | 46.9 | 47.5 | 504.5 | 1,051.5 |
| 91 Libya | 3.4 | 10.1 | – | 20.8 | – | – | – | – |
| 92 Oman | 2.1 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 15.0 | – | 52.2 | – | 586.1 |
| 93 Iran, Islamic Rep. | 7.2 | – | 15.7 | 18.1 | 41.7 | 41.5 | 541.4 | 502.3 |
| 94 Iraq | 2.6 | 3.8 | – | 6.5 | 40.5 | – | 161.2 | – |
| 95 Romania | 3.3 | 2.1 | 6.7 | – | – | – | – | – |
| Industrial Market Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 96 Spain | 2.3 | 3.2 | 14.7 | 13.3 | 58.9 | – | 718.4 | – |
| 97 Ireland | 6.4 | 7.1 | 11.2 | 9.3 | 26.1 | 28.6 | 657.2 | 963.0 |
| 98 Saudi Arabia | 5.4 | 8.6 | 8.7 | 9.2 | – | – | – | – |
| 99 Israel | 8.0 | 6.8 | 7.3 | 8.6 | 33.7 | 33.3 | 866.4 | 695.4 |
| 100 New Zealand | 6.0 | 5.2 | 14.5 | 20.9 | 35.4 | 34.5 | 1,059.8 | 1,866.8 |
| 101 Singapore | 2.8 | 3.8 | 7.3 | 11.5 | 35.8 | 28.7 | 336.5 | 632.1 |
| 102 Hong Kong | 2.5 | – | 14.6 | – | 33.7 | – | 368.5 | – |
| 103 Italy | 4.4 | 4.0 | 11.1 | 8.6 | 29.2 | – | 919.0 | – |
| 104 United Kingdom | 5.6 | 5.0 | 13.9 | – | 26.6 | 24.4 | 1,525.4 | 1,514.8 |
| 105 Australia | 5.9 | 5.8 | 14.8 | 12.6 | – | – | – | – |
| 106 Belgium | 5.9 | 5.4 | 16.3 | 14.3 | 25.3 | 25.0 | 2,120.9 | 2,487.7 |
| 107 Netherlands | 7.9 | 6.8 | 23.1 | 16.4 | 19.2 | 22.6 | 1,675.4 | 1,151.0 |
| 108 Austria | 5.6 | 5.9 | 8.0 | 7.8 | 17.9 | 17.5 | 1,620.4 | 3,123.1 |
| 109 France | 5.0 | 5.7 | – | – | 22.0 | 19.2 | 1,483.8 | 1,793.2 |
| 110 Germany, Fed. Rep. | 4.7 | 4.4 | 10.1 | 9.2 | 16.0 | 13.8 | 1,919.8 | 2,170.6 |
| 111 Finland | 5.5 | 5.7 | 11.2 | 12.9 | 31.8 | 31.3 | 2,184.8 | 3,080.9 |
| 112 Kuwait | 2.4 | 5.3 | 8.1 | – | 29.5 | 48.7 | 1,493.7 | 3,261.7 |
| 113 Denmark | 6.9 | 7.9 | 9.5 | 14.5 | – | – | – | – |
| 114 Canada | 7.3 | 7.2 | 17.3 | 15.4 | – | – | – | – |

See Technical Notes.

| *Proportion of primary school pupils in private schools* | | *Average annual growth rates in total primary enrolments* | | *Student-teacher ratios-primary schools* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1975-80* | *1980-87* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| 12.8 | 12.3 | 2.9 | 2.1 | 26 | 24 |
| 16.4 | 15.2 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 22 | 24 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 15 | 14 |
| 6.3 | 7.9 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 27 | 22 |
| 18.0 | 18.9 | 1.9 | 3.3 | 20 | 19 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (0.9) | 0.0 | 24 | 23 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 35 | 27 |
| 1.3 | 1.5 | 0.2 | (2.4) | 48 | 37 |
| 39.0 | 32.5 | 3.8 | 3.3 | 45 | 46 |
| 7.0 | 7.3 | 0.6 | (0.7) | 18 | 17 |
| 11.1 | 11.7 | 3.7 | 2.1 | 27 | 26 |
| 6.4 | 6.0 | (0.8) | (0.7) | 24 | 23 |
| 72.9 | 0.0 | (3.4) | 1.3 | 24 | 24 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.6 | 3.1 | 18 | 19 |
| 0.3 | 1.4 | 11.0 | 12.9 | 23 | 26 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.4 | 7.1 | 27 | 26 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.1 | 2.0 | 28 | 25 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | (1.0) | 21 | 21 |
| 35.5 | 34.6 | (0.2) | (1.0) | 28 | 26 |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 29 | 27 |
| 2.8 | 3.2 | 6.5 | 7.8 | 18 | 16 |
| - | - | 3.0 | 1.8 | 14 | 16 |
| 8.5 | 2.2 | (0.5) | (2.6) | 20 | 21 |
| - | - | (2.3) | 0.2 | 31 | 27 |
| 94.2 | - | (3.4) | (0.2) | 30 | 27 |
| 7.2 | 7.8 | (1.8) | (3.8) | 16 | 14 |
| 4.0 | 4.6 | (3.0) | (1.7) | 20 | 20 |
| 19.7 | 24.3 | 1.0 | (1.8) | 20 | 17 |
| 53.0 | 55.6 | (2.2) | (2.0) | 18 | 14 |
| 68.3 | 68.6 | (1.7) | 1.0 | 23 | 17 |
| 3.4 | 3.8 | (4.4) | (1.9) | 15 | 11 |
| 14.5 | 15.0 | 0.0 | (1.5) | 21 | 19 |
| 1.8 | 1.6 | (6.5) | (2.5) | 17 | 17 |
| - | - | (3.8) | 0.6 | 14 | 15 |
| 16.0 | 34.0 | 5.9 | 2.9 | 19 | 18 |
| 8.8 | 9.4 | (2.4) | (1.8) | 12 | 11 |
| - | 3.5 | (2.2) | 0.7 | 18 | 17 |

**Table 3 (continued): Indicators of Educational Effort**

| Case | Country | *Total education expenditures as % of GNP* | | *Total education as % of government expenditure* | | *Primary recurrent expenditures as % of total education recurrent expenditure* | | *Primary per pupil education expenditures (1985$)* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| 115 | Sweden | 9.1 | 7.4 | 14.1 | 12.8 | - | - | - | - |
| 116 | Japan | 5.8 | 5.0 | 19.6 | 17.7 | 38.2 | 27.1 | 1,343.2 | 1,602.2 |
| 117 | United Arab Emirates | 1.0 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 13.2 | - | - | - | - |
| 118 | Norway | 7.2 | 6.8 | 13.8 | 13.6 | - | - | - | - |
| 119 | United States | 6.7 | 6.7 | - | 21.0 | 37.2 | 36.9 | 2,477.7 | 3,934.1 |
| 120 | Switzerland | 5.0 | 4.8 | 18.8 | 18.9 | - | - | - | - |
| | Other Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 121 | Albania | - | - | 10.3 | 11.2 | - | - | - | - |
| 122 | Angola | 5.0 | - | - | 12.7 | - | - | - | - |
| 123 | Bulgaria | 5.6 | 6.9 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 124 | Cuba | 7.2 | 6.8 | - | 18.4 | 24.4 | 20.8 | 265.1 | 460.2 |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | 4.8 | 5.3 | - | 8.0 | 40.9 | 43.3 | 428.4 | 652.8 |
| 126 | German Dem. Rep. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 127 | Korea, Dem. Rep. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 128 | Mongolia | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 129 | USSR | 7.3 | 7.5 | 11.2 | - | 33.9 | 39.1 | 663.9 | 960.7 |

See Technical Notes.

| *Proportion of primary school pupils in private schools* | | *Average annual growth rates in total primary enrolments* | | *Student-teacher ratios-primary schools* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *1980* | *Around 1987* | *1975-80* | *1980-87* | *1980* | *Around 1987* |
| 0.6 | 0.8 | (0.9) | (1.7) | 16 | 16 |
| 0.5 | 0.6 | 2.7 | (2.1) | 25 | 23 |
| 17.1 | 27.4 | 11.2 | 10.7 | 16 | 18 |
| 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.0 | (2.9) | 17 | 16 |
| 11.1 | 10.9 | (2.1) | 0.3 | 22 | 22 |
| 2.2 | 2.4 | (2.6) | (2.6) | 25 | 24 |
| | | | | | |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (0.9) | (0.2) | 21 | 20 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 9.6 | (7.9) | 40 | 39 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.4 | 19 | 18 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (3.9) | (6.2) | 17 | 13 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 1.1 | 21 | 21 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | (4.3) | 1.5 | 16 | 17 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | – | – | – | – |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | 1.1 | 32 | 31 |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.7 | 18 | 17 |

**Table 4: Indicators of Educational Process and Results**

| Case | Country | Years in primary school cycle | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 female | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 female |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 1 | Ethiopia | 6 | 46 | 28 | 32 | 22 |
| 2 | Bhutan | 6 | 31 | 20 | - | - |
| 3 | Chad | 6 | 73 | 29 | 52 | 23 |
| 4 | Zaire | 6 | 84 | 68 | - | - |
| 5 | Bangladesh | 5 | 68 | 49 | 61 | 44 |
| 6 | Malawi | 8 | 73 | 59 | 50 | 47 |
| 7 | Nepal | 5 | 113 | 54 | - | - |
| 8 | Lao PDR | 5 | 121 | 100 | - | - |
| 9 | Mozambique | 4 | 76 | 59 | 49 | 41 |
| 10 | Tanzania | 7 | 67 | 66 | 50 | 51 |
| 11 | Burkina Faso | 6 | 41 | 24 | 34 | 20 |
| 12 | Madagascar | 5 | 97 | 92 | 89 | 85 |
| 13 | Mali | 6 | 29 | 17 | 23 | 14 |
| 14 | Burundi | 6 | 68 | 50 | 52 | 41 |
| 15 | Zambia | 7 | 102 | 92 | - | - |
| 16 | Niger | 6 | 37 | 20 | - | - |
| 17 | Uganda | 7 | 76 | 63 | 57 | 50 |
| 18 | China | 5 | 137 | 120 | 99 | 91 |
| 19 | Somalia | 8 | 20 | 10 | 14 | 8 |
| 20 | Togo | 6 | 124 | 78 | 87 | 59 |
| 21 | India | 5 | 113 | 81 | - | - |
| 21 | Rwanda | 8 | 69 | 66 | 65 | 63 |
| 23 | Sierra Leone | 7 | 69 | 50 | - | - |
| 24 | Benin | 6 | 84 | 43 | 66 | 34 |
| 25 | Central African Rep. | 6 | 82 | 51 | 59 | 39 |
| 26 | Kenya | 8 | 98 | 93 | - | - |
| 27 | Sudan | 6 | 58 | 41 | - | - |
| 28 | Pakistan | 5 | 51 | 28 | - | - |
| 29 | Haiti | 6 | 101 | 89 | 56 | 53 |
| 30 | Lesotho | 7 | 101 | 125 | - | - |
| 31 | Nigeria | 6 | 89 | 71 | - | - |
| 32 | Ghana | 6 | 78 | 63 | - | - |
| 33 | Sri Lanka | 5 | 105 | 102 | 100 | 100 |
| 34 | Yemen, PDR | 8 | 97 | 38 | - | - |
| 35 | Mauritania | 6 | 61 | 42 | - | - |
| 36 | Indonesia | 6 | 120 | 115 | 99 | 96 |
| 37 | Liberia | 6 | 43 | 24 | - | - |
| 38 | Afghanistan | 8 | 27 | 14 | - | - |
| 39 | Myanmar | 5 | 104 | 88 | - | - |
| 40 | Guinea | 6 | 41 | 18 | 31 | 15 |
| 41 | Kampuchea, Dem. | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| 42 | Viet Nam | 5 | 105 | 99 | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| Female enrolment (1985) percent of: | | | Average % of grade 1 completing primary school | Secondary school gross enrolment rates | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | grade 1 | last grade | 1980-86 | male | female |
| 38 | 39 | 39 | 50 | 18 | 12 |
| 35 | 37 | 34 | – | 7 | 2 |
| 29 | 34 | 17 | 78 | 10 | 2 |
| 44 | 51 | 37 | 60 | 32 | 14 |
| 40 | 43 | 34 | – | 24 | 11 |
| 44 | 48 | 32 | 31 | 5 | 3 |
| 29 | 31 | 27 | – | 41 | 15 |
| 44 | 43 | 44 | – | 27 | 19 |
| 44 | 47 | 39 | 34 | 7 | 4 |
| 50 | 49 | 50 | 71 | 5 | 3 |
| 37 | 38 | 37 | 67 | 8 | 4 |
| 49 | 46 | 52 | – | 23 | 19 |
| 37 | 38 | 36 | 40 | 9 | 4 |
| 43 | 45 | 39 | 87 | 6 | 3 |
| 47 | 50 | 42 | 80 | 23 | 13 |
| 36 | 36 | 36 | 75 | 9 | 3 |
| 45 | 47 | 31 | – | 16 | 9 |
| 45 | 46 | 46 | – | 50 | 37 |
| 34 | 35 | 37 | – | 12 | 6 |
| 39 | 41 | 32 | 52 | 36 | 12 |
| 40 | 40 | 37 | – | 50 | 27 |
| 49 | 49 | 46 | 46 | 7 | 5 |
| 41 | – | – | – | 29 | 15 |
| 34 | 34 | 31 | 36 | 23 | 9 |
| 38 | 41 | 33 | 17 | 17 | 6 |
| 48 | 48 | 44 | – | 27 | 19 |
| 40 | 40 | 43 | 76 | 23 | 17 |
| 33 | 35 | 30 | – | 26 | 11 |
| 47 | 46 | 46 | 32 | 18 | 16 |
| 56 | 50 | 65 | 52 | 20 | 29 |
| 44 | – | – | – | 52 | 18 |
| 44 | 46 | 43 | – | 49 | 32 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | 94 | 63 | 69 |
| 26 | 30 | 23 | – | 25 | 9 |
| 41 | 43 | 38 | 78 | 23 | 9 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | 80 | 47 | 35 |
| 35 | – | – | – | 22 | 9 |
| 33 | 37 | 30 | 78 | 10 | 5 |
| 48 | – | – | – | 32 | 21 |
| 31 | 34 | 28 | 43 | 13 | 4 |
| – | – | – | – | – | – |
| 48 | 46 | 48 | – | 43 | 40 |

**Table 4 (continued): Indicators of Educational Process and Results**

| Case | Country | Years in primary school cycle | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 female | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 female |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 43 | Senegal | 6 | 71 | 49 | 59 | 41 |
| 44 | Bolivia | 8 | 97 | 85 | 88 | 78 |
| 45 | Zimbabwe | 7 | 139 | 132 | 100 | 100 |
| 46 | Philippines | 6 | 105 | 107 | 94 | 96 |
| 47 | Yemen Arab Rep. | 6 | 141 | 40 | - | - |
| 48 | Morocco | 5 | 85 | 56 | 68 | 46 |
| 49 | Egypt, Arab Rep. | 6 | 100 | 79 | - | - |
| 50 | Papua New Guinea | 6 | 75 | 64 | - | - |
| 51 | Dominican Republic | 8 | 99 | 103 | 73 | 73 |
| 52 | Côte d'Ivoire | 6 | 82 | 58 | - | - |
| 53 | Honduras | 6 | 104 | 108 | 89 | 94 |
| 54 | Nicaragua | 6 | 94 | 104 | 74 | 79 |
| 55 | Thailand | 6 | 99 | 94 | - | - |
| 56 | El Salvador | 9 | 77 | 81 | - | - |
| 57 | Congo, People's Rep. | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| 58 | Jamaica | 6 | 104 | 106 | 97 | 99 |
| 59 | Guatemala | 6 | 82 | 70 | - | - |
| 60 | Cameroon | 6 | 119 | 100 | - | - |
| 61 | Paraguay | 6 | 104 | 99 | 88 | 86 |
| 62 | Ecuador | 6 | 118 | 116 | - | - |
| 63 | Botswana | 7 | 108 | 115 | 91 | 98 |
| 64 | Tunisia | 6 | 126 | 107 | 100 | 89 |
| 65 | Turkey | 5 | 121 | 113 | - | - |
| 66 | Colombia | 5 | 112 | 115 | 72 | 74 |
| 67 | Chile | 8 | 103 | 101 | - | - |
| 68 | Peru | 6 | 125 | 120 | - | - |
| 69 | Mauritius | 6 | 105 | 107 | 93 | 95 |
| 70 | Jordan | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| 71 | Costa Rica | 6 | 100 | 97 | 85 | 85 |
| 72 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 6 | 115 | 104 | 100 | 94 |
| 73 | Malaysia | 6 | 102 | 102 | - | - |
| 74 | Mexico | 6 | 119 | 116 | - | - |
| 75 | South Africa | 7 | 89 | 89 | - | - |
| 76 | Poland | 8 | 101 | 101 | 99 | 99 |
| 77 | Lebanon | 5 | 106 | 95 | - | - |
| Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 78 | Brazil | 8 | 107 | 98 | - | - |
| 79 | Uruguay | 6 | 111 | 109 | 92 | 92 |
| 80 | Hungary | 8 | 97 | 97 | 94 | 96 |
| 81 | Panama | 6 | 109 | 104 | 90 | 89 |
| 82 | Argentina | 7 | 110 | 110 | - | - |
| 83 | Yugoslavia | 4 | 95 | 94 | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| Female enrolment (1985) percent of: | | | Average % of grade 1 completing primary school | Secondary school gross enrollment rates | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | grade 1 | last grade | 1980-86 | male | female |
| 41 | 43 | 37 | 85 | 19 | 10 |
| 47 | 50 | 42 | - | 40 | 35 |
| 49 | 50 | 46 | 74 | 54 | 36 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 75 | 66 | 66 |
| 23 | 27 | 15 | - | 46 | 6 |
| 39 | 40 | 38 | 67 | 43 | 30 |
| 43 | 44 | 41 | 95 | 79 | 58 |
| 44 | 44 | 44 | - | 16 | 9 |
| 49 | 47 | 49 | 35 | 44 | 57 |
| 41 | 44 | 35 | 73 | 27 | 11 |
| 50 | 48 | 52 | 43 | 29 | 36 |
| 52 | 49 | 57 | 35 | 29 | 58 |
| - | - | - | - | 31 | 28 |
| 50 | 48 | 58 | 31 | 27 | 30 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | 71 | - | - |
| 49 | 48 | 52 | 82 | 62 | 67 |
| 45 | 46 | 45 | 36 | 22 | 19 |
| 46 | 46 | 45 | 70 | 32 | 20 |
| 48 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 30 | 30 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 63 | 55 | 57 |
| 52 | 51 | 56 | 89 | 31 | 33 |
| 45 | 47 | 43 | 72 | 46 | 34 |
| 47 | 47 | 47 | 97 | 57 | 34 |
| 50 | 49 | 49 | 57 | 55 | 56 |
| 49 | 48 | 50 | 85 | 72 | 76 |
| 48 | 49 | 46 | - | 68 | 61 |
| 49 | 50 | 49 | 98 | 53 | 50 |
| 49 | 50 | 47 | 96 | - | - |
| 48 | 47 | 49 | 76 | 40 | 43 |
| 46 | 47 | 44 | 89 | 69 | 48 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | 99 | 59 | 59 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | 69 | 54 | 53 |
| - | - | - | - | 59 | 58 |
| 49 | - | - | 93 | 78 | 82 |
| 47 | - | - | - | 61 | 59 |
| - | - | - | 22 | 32 | 42 |
| 49 | 48 | 50 | 86 | 68 | 76 |
| 49 | 49 | 50 | 92 | 69 | 70 |
| 48 | 47 | 49 | 82 | 56 | 63 |
| 49 | - | - | - | 69 | 78 |
| 48 | 48 | 49 | 98 | 82 | 79 |

**Table 4 (continued): Indicators of Educational Process and Results**

| Case | Country | Years in primary school cycle | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 female | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 female |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 84 | Algeria | 6 | 106 | 87 | 96 | 81 |
| 85 | Korea, Rep. of | 6 | 101 | 101 | 99 | 99 |
| 86 | Gabon | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| 87 | Portugal | 6 | 127 | 121 | 100 | 100 |
| 88 | Venezuela | 6 | 107 | 107 | 88 | 90 |
| 89 | Greece | 6 | 104 | 104 | 99 | 99 |
| 90 | Trinidad & Tobago | 7 | 99 | 100 | 87 | 88 |
| 91 | Libya | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| 92 | Oman | 6 | 103 | 92 | 83 | 77 |
| 93 | Iran, Islamic Rep. | 5 | 122 | 105 | 98 | 89 |
| 94 | Iraq | 6 | 105 | 91 | 91 | 82 |
| 95 | Romania | 8 | 98 | 98 | - | - |
| | Industrial Market Economies | | | | | |
| 96 | Spain | 5 | 113 | 113 | 100 | 100 |
| 97 | Ireland | 6 | 100 | 100 | 88 | 90 |
| 98 | Saudi Arabia | 6 | 78 | 65 | 64 | 48 |
| 99 | Israel | 8 | 94 | 97 | - | - |
| 100 | New Zealand | 6 | 107 | 106 | 100 | 100 |
| 101 | Singapore | 6 | 117 | 112 | 100 | 100 |
| 102 | Hong Kong | 6 | 106 | 105 | - | - |
| 103 | Italy | 5 | 95 | 95 | - | - |
| 104 | United Kingdom | 6 | 105 | 106 | 100 | 100 |
| 105 | Australia | 6 | 106 | 105 | 97 | 98 |
| 106 | Belgium | 6 | 99 | 100 | 82 | 83 |
| 107 | Netherlands | 8 | 114 | 116 | 100 | 100 |
| 108 | Austria | 4 | 102 | 101 | - | - |
| 109 | France | 5 | 114 | 113 | 100 | 100 |
| 110 | Germany, Fed. Rep. | 4 | 101 | 101 | 84 | 86 |
| 111 | Finland | 6 | 102 | 101 | - | - |
| 112 | Kuwait | 4 | 95 | 92 | 81 | 77 |
| 113 | Denmark | 6 | 98 | 99 | - | - |
| 114 | Canada | 6 | 106 | 104 | 97 | 97 |
| 115 | Sweden | 6 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 116 | Japan | 6 | 102 | 102 | 100 | 100 |
| 117 | United Arab Emirates | 6 | 98 | 100 | 88 | 89 |
| 118 | Norway | 6 | 95 | 95 | 94 | 94 |
| 119 | United States | 8 | 101 | 100 | 95 | 96 |
| 120 | Switzerland | 6 | - | - | - | - |
| | Other Economies | | | | | |
| 121 | Albania | 8 | 100 | 99 | - | - |
| 122 | Angola | 4 | 93 | 93 | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| Female enrolment (1985) percent of: | | | Average % of grade 1 completing primary school | Secondary school gross enrolment rates | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | grade 1 | last grade | 1980-86 | male | female |
| 44 | 45 | 42 | 91 | 63 | 46 |
| 49 | 49 | 48 | 99 | 91 | 86 |
| 49 | 49 | 48 | 44 | - | - |
| 48 | 47 | 48 | - | 52 | 60 |
| 49 | 47 | 52 | 73 | 48 | 59 |
| 48 | 48 | 49 | 99 | 92 | 89 |
| 50 | 49 | 51 | - | 80 | 85 |
| - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 46 | 48 | 41 | 92 | 46 | 29 |
| 44 | 46 | 42 | 87 | 57 | 39 |
| 45 | 46 | 43 | 73 | 60 | 38 |
| 49 | - | - | - | 74 | 76 |
| 49 | 49 | 48 | 98 | 97 | 107 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | - | 93 | 103 |
| 44 | 46 | 43 | 90 | 52 | 35 |
| 50 | 50 | 49 | 93 | 79 | 87 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | - | 84 | 86 |
| 47 | - | - | 95 | 72 | 71 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | 98 | 71 | 76 |
| 49 | - | - | 100 | 75 | 75 |
| 49 | - | - | - | 82 | 85 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | - | 96 | 99 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 78 | 98 | 100 |
| 49 | - | - | 94 | 105 | 103 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | - | 78 | 81 |
| 48 | 48 | 49 | 94 | 89 | 96 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 97 | 96 | 92 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 97 | 98 | 114 |
| 50 | 50 | 49 | 29 | 86 | 79 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 100 | 106 | 107 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | - | 104 | 104 |
| 49 | - | - | 100 | 90 | 92 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 100 | 95 | 97 |
| 48 | 49 | 49 | 88 | 55 | 66 |
| 49 | 48 | 49 | 100 | 92 | 97 |
| 48 | 47 | 48 | - | 98 | 99 |
| 49 | 49 | 49 | 55 | - | - |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | - | 80 | 71 |
| - | - | - | - | 13 | 13 |

**Table 4 (continued): Indicators of Educational Process and Results**

| Case | Country | Years in primary school cycle | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Gross enrolment ratio 1984-86 female | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 male | Net enrolment ratio 1984-86 female |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 123 | Bulgaria | 8 | 105 | 103 | - | - |
| 124 | Cuba | 6 | 107 | 100 | 95 | 94 |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | 8 | 95 | 96 | - | - |
| 126 | German Dem. Rep. | 4 | 107 | 105 | 92 | 91 |
| 127 | Korea, Dem. Rep. | - | - | - | - | - |
| 128 | Mongolia | 3 | 100 | 103 | - | - |
| 129 | USSR | 5 | 106 | 106 | - | - |

See Technical Notes.

| Female enrolment (1985) percent of: | | | Average % of grade 1 completing primary school | Secondary school gross enrolment rates | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| total | grade 1 | last grade | 1980-86 | male | female |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | 86 | 75 | 76 |
| 47 | 48 | 48 | 91 | 85 | 92 |
| 49 | 49 | 50 | 93 | 27 | 49 |
| 48 | 48 | 48 | - | 79 | 76 |
| - | - | - | - | - | - |
| - | - | - | - | 88 | 96 |
| - | - | - | - | 98 | 98 |

**Table 5: Indicators of Social Effects**

| Case | Country | *Adult literacy rate* male | | *Adult literacy rate* female | | *Under 5 mortality rate (1988)* | *Life expectancy at birth (1988)* | *Calorie supply as % of requirements (1985)* | *Total fertility rate (1988)* | *Share of income* lowest 40% | *Share of income* highest 20% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low-Income Economies | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Ethiopia | - | | - | | 259 | 41 | 94 | 6.2 | - | - |
| 2 | Bhutan | - | | - | | 197 | 48 | - | 5.5 | - | - |
| 3 | Chad | 40 | | 11 | | 223 | 46 | 79 | 5.9 | - | - |
| 4 | Zaire | 79 | | 45 | | 138 | 53 | 96 | 6.1 | - | - |
| 5 | Bangladesh | 43 | | 22 | | 188 | 51 | 78 | 5.5 | 17 | 45 |
| 6 | Malawi | 52 | | 31 | | 262 | 47 | 95 | 7.0 | - | - |
| 7 | Nepal | 39 | | 12 | | 197 | 51 | 88 | 5.9 | - | - |
| 8 | Lao PDR | 92 | | 76 | | 159 | 49 | 96 | 5.7 | - | - |
| 9 | Mozambique | 55 | | 22 | | 298 | 47 | 68 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 10 | Tanzania | 93 | * | 88 | * | 176 | 53 | 99 | 7.1 | - | - |
| 11 | Burkina Faso | 21 | | 6 | | 233 | 47 | 87 | 6.5 | - | - |
| 12 | Madagascar | 74 | | 62 | | 184 | 54 | 111 | 6.6 | - | - |
| 13 | Mali | 23 | | 11 | | 292 | 44 | 69 | 6.7 | - | - |
| 14 | Burundi | 43 | | 26 | | 188 | 49 | 99 | 6.3 | - | - |
| 15 | Zambia | 84 | | 67 | | 127 | 54 | 85 | 7.2 | 11 | 61 |
| 16 | Niger | 19 | | 9 | | 228 | 45 | 97 | 7.1 | - | - |
| 17 | Uganda | 70 | | 45 | | 169 | 51 | 109 | 6.9 | - | - |
| 18 | China | 82 | | 56 | | 43 | 70 | 111 | 2.4 | - | - |
| 19 | Somalia | 18 | | 6 | | 221 | 45 | 91 | 6.6 | - | - |
| 20 | Togo | 53 | | 28 | | 153 | 53 | 97 | 6.1 | - | - |
| 21 | India | 57 | | 29 | | 149 | 58 | 94 | 4.3 | - | - |
| 22 | Rwanda | 61 | | 33 | | 206 | 49 | 87 | 8.3 | - | - |
| 23 | Sierra Leone | 38 | | 21 | | 266 | 41 | 85 | 6.5 | - | - |
| 24 | Benin | 37 | | 16 | | 185 | 47 | 94 | 7.0 | - | - |
| 25 | Central African Rep. | 53 | | 29 | | 223 | 46 | 92 | 5.9 | - | - |
| 26 | Kenya | 70 | | 49 | | 113 | 59 | 87 | 8.1 | 9 | 60 |
| 27 | Sudan | 33 | * | 14 | * | 181 | 50 | 93 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 28 | Pakistan | 40 | | 19 | | 166 | 57 | 93 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 29 | Haiti | 40 | | 35 | | 171 | 55 | 79 | 4.7 | - | - |
| 30 | Lesotho | 62 | | 84 | | 136 | 56 | 100 | 5.8 | - | - |
| 31 | Nigeria | 54 | | 31 | | 174 | 51 | 92 | 7.0 | - | - |
| 32 | Ghana | 64 | | 43 | | 146 | 54 | 78 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 33 | Sri Lanka | 91 | | 83 | | 43 | 70 | 114 | 2.6 | 16 | 50 |
| 34 | Yemen, PDR | 59 | | 25 | | 197 | 51 | 93 | 6.7 | - | - |
| 35 | Mauritania | - | | - | | 220 | 46 | 97 | 6.5 | - | - |
| 36 | Indonesia | 83 | | 65 | | 119 | 56 | 109 | 3.2 | 14 | 49 |
| 37 | Liberia | 47 | | 23 | | 147 | 55 | 103 | 6.5 | - | - |
| 38 | Afghanistan | 39 | | 8 | | 300 | 42 | 92 | 6.9 | - | - |
| 39 | Myanmar | - | | - | | 95 | 60 | 117 | 4.0 | - | - |
| 40 | Guinea | 40 | | 17 | | 248 | 42 | 85 | 6.2 | - | - |
| 41 | Kampuchea, Dem. | 85 | * | 65 | * | 199 | 49 | 85 | 4.7 | - | - |
| 42 | Viet Nam | 88 | * | 80 | * | 88 | 62 | 97 | 4.0 | - | - |

* See Technical Notes.

**Table 5 (continued): Indicators Of Social Effects**

| Case | Country | Adult literacy rate male | Adult literacy rate female | Under 5 mortality rate (1988) | Life expectancy at birth (1988) | Calorie supply as % of requirements (1985) | Total fertility rate (1988) | Share of income lowest 40% | Share of income highest 20% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | | | | |
| 43 | Senegal | 37 | 19 | 136 | 46 | 109 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 44 | Bolivia | 84 | 65 | 172 | 53 | 88 | 6.0 | - | - |
| 45 | Zimbabwe | 82 | 67 | 113 | 59 | 84 | 5.8 | - | - |
| 46 | Philippines | 86 | 85 | 73 | 64 | 101 | 4.3 | 14 | 53 |
| 47 | Yemen Arab Rep. | 27 | 3 | 190 | 51 | 93 | 7.0 | - | - |
| 48 | Morocco | 45 | 22 | 119 | 61 | 108 | 4.8 | - | - |
| 49 | Egypt, Arab Rep. | 59 | 30 | 125 | 61 | 127 | 4.8 | 17 | 48 |
| 50 | Papua New Guinea | 55 | 35 | 81 | 54 | 79 | 5.7 | - | - |
| 51 | Dominican Republic | 78 | 77 | 81 | 66 | 110 | 3.7 | - | - |
| 52 | Côte d'Ivoire | 53 | 31 | 142 | 53 | 102 | 7.4 | 9 | 61 |
| 53 | Honduras | 61 | 58 | 107 | 64 | 95 | 5.5 | - | - |
| 54 | Nicaragua | - | - | 95 | 64 | 105 | 5.5 | - | - |
| 55 | Thailand | 94 | 88 | 49 | 65 | 102 | 2.5 | 15 | 50 |
| 56 | El Salvador | 75 | 69 | 84 | 63 | 91 | 4.8 | 16 | 47 |
| 57 | Congo, People's Rep. | 71 | 55 | 114 | 49 | 108 | 6.0 | - | - |
| 58 | Jamaica | - | - | 22 | 74 | 112 | 2.8 | - | - |
| 59 | Guatemala | 63 | 47 | 99 | 62 | 99 | 5.7 | - | - |
| 60 | Cameroon | 68 | 45 | 153 | 51 | 89 | 5.7 | - | - |
| 61 | Paraguay | 91 | 85 | 62 | 67 | 127 | 4.6 | - | - |
| 62 | Ecuador | 85 | 80 | 87 | 66 | 88 | 4.6 | - | - |
| 63 | Botswana | 73 | 70 | 92 | 59 | 95 | 6.2 | - | - |
| 64 | Tunisia | 68 | 41 | 83 | 66 | 119 | 4.0 | - | - |
| 65 | Turkey | 86 | 62 | 93 | 64 | 125 | 3.5 | 12 | 57 |
| 66 | Colombia | 89 | 87 | 68 | 65 | 111 | 3.5 | - | - |
| 67 | Chile | 97 * | 96 * | 26 | 72 | 102 | 2.7 | - | - |
| 68 | Peru | 91 | 78 | 123 | 62 | 84 | 4.4 | 7 | 61 |
| 69 | Mauritius | 89 | 77 | 29 | 69 | 118 | 1.9 | 12 | 61 |
| 70 | Jordan | 87 | 63 | 57 | 66 | 117 | 7.2 | - | - |
| 71 | Costa Rica | 94 | 93 | 22 | 75 | 118 | 3.2 | 12 | 55 |
| 72 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 76 | 43 | 64 | 65 | 129 | 6.7 | - | - |
| 73 | Malaysia | 81 | 66 | 32 | 70 | 110 | 3.5 | 11 | 56 |
| 74 | Mexico | 92 | 88 | 68 | 69 | 126 | 3.5 | 10 | 58 |
| 75 | South Africa | - | - | 95 | 61 | 118 | 4.4 | - | - |
| 76 | Poland | - | - | 18 | 71 | 126 | 2.2 | - | - |
| 77 | Lebanon | 86 | 69 | 51 | 67 | 101 | 3.3 | - | - |
| Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | | | | |
| 78 | Brazil | 79 | 76 | 85 | 65 | 107 | 3.4 | 7 | 67 |
| 79 | Uruguay | - | - | 31 | 71 | 103 | 2.6 | - | - |
| 80 | Hungary | - | - | 19 | 70 | 135 | 1.7 | 21 | 36 |
| 81 | Panama | 89 | 88 | 34 | 72 | 98 | 3.1 | 7 | 62 |

**Table 5 (continued): Indicators Of Social Effects**

| Case | Country | Adult literacy rate male | Adult literacy rate female | Under 5 mortality rate (1988) | Life expectancy at birth (1988) | Calorie supply as % of requirements (1985) | Total fertility rate (1988) | Share of income lowest 40% | Share of income highest 20% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 82 | Argentina | 96 | 95 | 37 | 71 | 122 | 2.9 | 14 | 50 |
| 83 | Yugoslavia | 97 | 86 | 28 | 72 | 134 | 1.9 | 19 | 39 |
| 84 | Algeria | 63 | 37 | 107 | 63 | 121 | 6.0 | – | – |
| 85 | Korea, Rep. of | – | – | 33 | 69 | 117 | 2.0 | 17 | 45 |
| 86 | Gabon | 72 | 53 | 169 | 52 | 124 | 5.0 | – | – |
| 87 | Portugal | 89 | 80 | 17 | 73 | 124 | 1.7 | 15 | 49 |
| 88 | Venezuela | 88 | 85 | 44 | 70 | 95 | 3.7 | 10 | 54 |
| 89 | Greece | 97 | 88 | 18 | 76 | 145 | 1.7 | – | – |
| 90 | Trinidad & Tobago | 97 | 95 | 23 | 70 | 126 | 2.7 | 13 | 50 |
| 91 | Libya | 81 | 50 | 119 | 61 | 152 | 6.8 | – | – |
| 92 | Oman | 47 * | 12 * | 64 | 56 | – | 7.2 | – | – |
| 93 | Iran, Islamic Rep. | 62 | 39 | 90 | 66 | 118 | 5.6 | – | – |
| 94 | Iraq | 90 * | 87 * | 94 | 64 | 118 | 6.3 | – | – |
| 95 | Romania | – | – | 28 | 70 | 127 | 2.1 | – | – |
| | Industrial Market Economies | | | | | | | | |
| 96 | Spain | 97 | 92 | 12 | 77 | 130 | 1.7 | 19 | 40 |
| 97 | Ireland | – | – | 9 | 74 | 140 | 2.5 | 20 | 39 |
| 98 | Saudi Arabia | 71 * | 31 * | 98 | 64 | 132 | 7.2 | – | – |
| 99 | Israel | 97 | 93 | 14 | 75 | 119 | 2.9 | 18 | 40 |
| 100 | New Zealand | – | – | 12 | 75 | 131 | 1.9 | 16 | 45 |
| 101 | Singapore | 93 | 79 | 12 | 73 | 114 | 1.6 | – | – |
| 102 | Hong Kong | 95 | 81 | 10 | 76 | 119 | 1.7 | 16 | 47 |
| 103 | Italy | 98 | 96 | 11 | 76 | 143 | 1.4 | 18 | 44 |
| 104 | United Kingdom | – | – | 11 | 75 | 129 | 1.8 | 19 | 40 |
| 105 | Australia | – | – | 10 | 76 | 114 | 1.8 | 15 | 47 |
| 106 | Belgium | – | – | 13 | 75 | 139 | 1.5 | 22 | 36 |
| 107 | Netherlands | – | – | 8 | 77 | 128 | 1.4 | 22 | 36 |
| 108 | Austria | – | – | 10 | 74 | 130 | 1.5 | – | – |
| 109 | France | – | – | 10 | 76 | 142 | 1.8 | 17 | 42 |
| 110 | Germany, Fed. Rep. | – | – | 10 | 75 | 133 | 1.4 | 20 | 40 |
| 111 | Finland | – | – | 7 | 75 | 111 | 1.6 | 18 | 38 |
| 112 | Kuwait | 76 | 63 | 22 | 73 | – | 4.8 | – | – |
| 113 | Denmark | – | – | 11 | 75 | 129 | 1.5 | 17 | 39 |
| 114 | Canada | – | – | 8 | 77 | 130 | 1.6 | 17 | 40 |
| 115 | Sweden | – | – | 7 | 77 | 114 | 1.6 | 21 | 42 |
| 116 | Japan | – | – | 8 | 78 | 106 | 1.7 | 22 | 38 |
| 117 | United Arab Emirates | 58 | 38 | 32 | 71 | – | 4.8 | – | – |
| 118 | Norway | – | – | 10 | 77 | 114 | 1.7 | 19 | 38 |
| 119 | United States | – | – | 13 | 75 | 140 | 1.8 | 17 | 40 |
| 120 | Switzerland | – | – | 8 | 77 | 126 | 1.6 | 20 | 38 |

* See Technical Notes.

**Table 5 (continued): Indicators Of Social Effects**

| Case | Country | Adult literacy rate male | Adult literacy rate female | Under 5 mortality rate (1988) | Life expectancy at birth (1988) | Calorie supply as % of requirements (1985) | Total fertility rate (1988) | Share of income lowest 40% | Share of income highest 20% |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Other Economies | | | | | | | | | |
| 121 | Albania | - | - | 34 | 72 | 118 | 3.0 | - | - |
| 122 | Angola | 49 | - | 292 | 45 | 86 | 6.4 | - | - |
| 123 | Bulgaria | - | - | 20 | 72 | 146 | 1.9 | - | - |
| 124 | Cuba | 96 * | 96 * | 18 | 74 | 127 | 1.7 | - | - |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | - | - | 15 | 71 | 143 | 2.0 | - | - |
| 126 | German Dem. Rep. | - | - | 12 | 73 | 143 | 1.7 | - | - |
| 127 | Korea, Dem. Rep. | - | - | 33 | 69 | 126 | 3.6 | - | - |
| 128 | Mongolia | 93 | 86 | 59 | 64 | 117 | 5.4 | - | - |
| 129 | USSR | - | - | 32 | 70 | 128 | 2.4 | - | - |

**Table 6: Participation in Adult Education**

| Case | Country | Year | *Adult education enrolment* | *Population 15 and over ('000)* | *No. of adult students per 1,000 population 15 and over* | *Women as proportion of total enrolment* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 9 | Mozambique | 1982 | 278,561 | 6,206.6 | 45 | - |
| 10 | Tanzania | 1977 | 3,567,544 | 8,904.3 | 401 | 52.0 |
| 11 | Burkina Faso | 1981 | 50,680 | 3,934.0 | 13 | - |
| 14 | Burundi | 1981 | 6,770 | 2,523.3 | 3 | 71.7 |
| 15 | Zambia | 1980 | 19,787 | 3,052.0 | 7 | 37.5 |
| 19 | Somalia | 1981 | 24,815 | 2,717.8 | 9 | 42.4 |
| 21 | India | 1982 | 3,099,000 | 433,053.0 | 7 | - |
| 23 | Sierra Leone | 1980 | 11,643 | 1,949.5 | 6 | 35.1 |
| 24 | Benin | 1981 | 9,719 | 1,959.3 | 5 | - |
| 25 | Central African Rep. | 1977 | 1,152 | 1,241.1 | 1 | 17.7 |
| 27 | Sudan | 1980 | 101,336 | 10,269.4 | 10 | - |
| 31 | Nigeria | 1976 | 201,332 | 35,859.2 | 6 | - |
| 33 | Sri Lanka | 1980 | 107,973 | 9,417.4 | 11 | 49.8 |
| 34 | Yemen, PDR | 1977 | 44,035 | 920.7 | 48 | 79.2 |
| 36 | Indonesia | 1980 | 1,595,290 | 90,059.3 | 18 | 60.2 |
| 37 | Liberia | 1980 | 14,660 | 1,023.8 | 14 | 45.4 |
| 40 | Guinea | 1981 | 14,160 | 356.6 | 40 | 18.5 |
| Lower-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 44 | Bolivia | 1977 | 28,033 | 2,932.0 | 10 | 54.6 |
| 45 | Zimbabwe | 1979 | 4,065 | 3,777.6 | 1 | - |
| 46 | Philippines | 1981 | 6,992,742 | 29,547.7 | 237 | 38.8 |
| 49 | Egypt, Arab Rep. | 1982 | 189,088 | 26,738.9 | 7 | 9.4 |
| 53 | Honduras | 1978 | 20,003 | 1,792.1 | 11 | - |
| 54 | Nicaragua | 1981 | 311,688 | 1,474.6 | 211 | - |
| 55 | Thailand | 1977 | 166,701 | 25,201.0 | 7 | - |
| 56 | El Salvador | 1979 | 85,064 | 2,551.4 | 33 | 38.4 |
| 59 | Guatemala | 1980 | 32,638 | 4,061.5 | 8 | - |
| 61 | Paraguay | 1978 | 16,000 | 1,690.3 | 9 | 31.9 |
| 62 | Ecuador | 1978 | 99,080 | 4,193.1 | 24 | 48.5 |
| 63 | Botswana | 1978 | 192 | 386.8 | 1 | 53.1 |
| 65 | Turkey | 1981 | 133,329 | 28,554.6 | 5 | 74.8 |
| 66 | Colombia | 1980 | 1,241,562 | 15,620.2 | 80 | - |
| 67 | Chile | 1979 | 436,922 | 7,314.4 | 60 | 62.7 |
| 68 | Peru | 1978 | 338,600 | 9,570.3 | 35 | - |
| 70 | Jordan | 1981 | 8,917 | 1,764.5 | 5 | 82.9 |
| 71 | Costa Rica | 1980 | 131,677 | 1,375.1 | 96 | 40.8 |
| 72 | Syrian Arab Rep. | 1982 | 47,572 | 5,093.4 | 9 | 36.7 |
| 73 | Malaysia | 1975 | 68,563 | 7,082.5 | 10 | 46.5 |
| 74 | Mexico | 1982 | 440,000 | 41,462.8 | 11 | - |
| 76 | Poland | 1981 | 359,000 | 27,359.5 | 13 | - |
| Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | | |
| 79 | Uruguay | 1982 | 9,552 | 2,168.6 | 4 | - |
| 80 | Hungary | 1980 | 851,504 | 8,441.2 | 101 | 33.9 |

* See Technical Notes.

**Table 6 (continued): Participation in Adult Education**

| Case | Country | Year | *Adult education enrolment* | *Population 15 and over ('000)* | *No. of adult students per 1,000 population 15 and over* | *Women as proportion of total enrolment* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 81 | Panama | 1981 | 19,066 | 1,178.2 | 16 | - |
| 82 | Argentina | 1982 | 517,286 | 20,000.3 | 26 | 55.8 |
| | Upper-Middle-Income Economies | | | | | |
| 83 | Yugoslavia | 1979 | 147,085 | 16,664.2 | 9 | 35.3 |
| 85 | Korea, Rep. of | 1980 | 502,821 | 25,441.4 | 20 | - |
| 87 | Portugal | 1977 | 9,114 | 6,997.9 | 1 | 56.9 |
| 88 | Venezuela | 1980 | 390,000 | 9,034.2 | 43 | 54.9 |
| 89 | Greece | 1978 | 13,130 | 7,070.4 | 2 | 19.4 |
| 92 | Oman | 1978 | 2,891 | 461.5 | 6 | 18.7 |
| | Industrial Market Economies | | | | | |
| 96 | Spain | 1981 | 196,543 | 28,047.7 | 7 | 54.0 |
| 97 | Ireland | 1979 | 114,978 | 2,264.5 | 51 | - |
| 98 | Saudi Arabia | 1981 | 146,192 | 5,171.5 | 28 | 38.0 |
| 99 | Israel | 1981 | 20,521 | 2,675.2 | 8 | - |
| 100 | New Zealand | 1981 | 264,447 | 2,420.6 | 109 | 50.6 |
| 102 | Hong Kong | 1982 | 230,768 | 3,992.3 | 58 | - |
| 103 | Italy | 1979 | 398,163 | 44,070.1 | 9 | - |
| 104 | United Kingdom | 1981 | 3,197,000 | 44,446.8 | 72 | 22.2 |
| 105 | Australia | 1979 | 257,284 | 10,589.8 | 24 | - |
| 110 | Germany, Fed. Rep. | 1981 | 9,617,589 | 49,723.2 | 193 | - |
| 111 | Finland | 1981 | 631,057 | 3,898.6 | 162 | 72.2 |
| 112 | Kuwait | 1980 | 21,093 | 725.5 | 29 | 28.0 |
| 113 | Denmark | 1982 | 147,628 | 4,092.6 | 36 | 26.0 |
| 114 | Canada | 1976 | 2,597,857 | 17,062.3 | 152 | - |
| 115 | Sweden | 1980 | 3,074,771 | 6,656.3 | 462 | 65.0 |
| 116 | Japan | 1980 | 317,505 | 89,226.3 | 4 | 29.5 |
| 118 | Norway | 1979 | 872,447 | 3,145.7 | 277 | 56.9 |
| 119 | United States | 1978 | 18,197,000 | 167,654.8 | 109 | 57.0 |
| | Other Economies | | | | | |
| 124 | Cuba | 1982 | 343,574 | 6,985.2 | 49 | 54.6 |
| 125 | Czechoslovakia | 1980 | 140,185 | 11,657.4 | 12 | - |
| 129 | USSR | 1981 | 42,100,000 | 202,419.8 | 208 | 34.9 |

**Technical Notes**

The data presented in the text tables and charts and in the Data Annex have been selected from reports prepared by UNESCO, UNICEF, and the World Bank. Considerable effort has been made by each agency to ensure inter-country comparability of the data; nevertheless, the country reports and surveys which are the ultimate sources of much of the data often varied in their use of statistical methods, coverage, assumptions, and definitions. The availability and reliability of the data also was dependant on the level of development of the individual country's data collection system.

Because there still remain variations in terms of comparability, readers are urged to use care in the interpretation of single indicators and in inter-country comparisons. Differences in amounts should be considered as more directional (indicating relative position) then definitive (indicating the absolute size of the difference). Each column in the Data Annex tables will be discussed in terms of the source of data used, the definitions, and special considerations to be applied in interpreting the data.

**TABLE 1: BACKGROUND NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

Column (1): Gross National Product (GNP) per capita, 1987 (US$).

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

Notes: GNP measures the total domestic and foreign value added claimed by residents and is calculated on an annual basis without making deductions for depreciation.

The Hong Kong figure is for gross domestic product (GDP), defined as the total for final use of output of goods and services produced by an economy, by residents and nonresidents, regardless of the allocation to domestic and foreign claims.

To derive GNP per capita, World Bank estimates of GNP (see *World Development Report* for detail on statistical procedures used in developing comparable GNP estimates among countries) are divided by population. The population estimates themselves are mid-1987 values from the Population Division of the United Nations supplemented, where necessary, by World Bank sources. These estimates are based on the most recent survey or census of population; refugees not permanently settled in a country of asylum are considered part of the population of their country of origin.

Column (2): GNP per capita, Average Annual Growth Rate % (1965-80).

Source: *World Development Report 1988.*

Notes: Growth rates are calculated from constant price series (GNP net of inflation) and computed using the least squares method. The least squares growth rate is calculated by fitting a least-square linear regression trend line to the logarithmic annual values of GNP per capita.

Column (3): GNP per capita, Average Annual Growth Rate % (1980-87).

Source: World Bank, August, 1989.

Notes: Some growth rates are for a period other than 1980-87: Bhutan (1981-87), Islamic Republic of Iran (1980-85), Romania (1980-84), and Saudi Arabia (1980-86).

Column (4): Average Inflation Rate (%), 1980–87.

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

Notes: Measured by the annual growth rate of the GDP implicit deflator. The GDP deflator is calculated by dividing, for each year, the value of GDP at current value by the value of the GDP at constant values (net of inflation), both in terms of the national currency. The least squares method is then used to calculate the growth rate of the deflator over the time period. While this measure of inflation is not without limitations, it is the most broadly based indicator of price changes within an economy.

Column (5): Population, mid-1987 (in millions).
Source: *World Development Report 1989*, based on data from the Population Division of the United Nations.
Notes: See discussion for Column (1).

Column (6): Area (Thousand of Square Kilometers).
Source: *World Development Report 1989*, based on data from the Food and Agricultural Organization.

Column (7): Population density (per square kilometer).
Source: Column (5) divided by Column (6).
Notes: Because of differences in the proportion of arable land and the varying concentration of populations in urban areas, the value of this measure as an indicator of population pressure is conditional only.

Column (8): Population, Average Annual Growth Rate, 1980-87.
Source: *World Development Report 1989*.
Notes: Average growth rates are calculated from mid-year population estimates.

Column (9): Percent Population Urbanized, 1987.
Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the population division of the United Nations.
Notes: The percentage of population living in urban areas as specified according to the national definition of urban as used in the most recent population census or survey.

Column (10): Percent of Population With Access to Drinking Water, 1980–87, Total and Rural.
Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the World Health Organization.
Notes: Access to drinking water is defined in terms of the local availability of safe water from house connections, public standpipes, or treated or uncontaminated natural sources. "Reasonable access" is identified by WHO as not farther than 200 meters from a house to a public standpipe or, in rural areas, access such that the "housewife does not have to spend a disproportionate part of the day in fetching water for the family's needs." National definitions of rural and urban location are used.

Column (11): Percent of Population With Access to Health Services, 1980-87, Total and Rural.
Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the World Health Organization.
Notes: Defined as the percentage of population that can reach appropriate local health services by the usual local means of transport in no more than one hour.

Column (12): Radios and Televisions, per thousand of population, 1985.
Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from UNESCO.

**TABLE 2: INDICATORS OF FINANCIAL CAPACITY**

Column (1): General Government Consumption as Percent of GDP, 1965 and 1987.
Source: *World Development Report 1989*.
Notes: General government consumption includes all current expenditures for purchases of goods and services by all levels of government. Capital expenditure on national defense and security is regarded as consumption expenditure.

Column (2): Agriculture as Percent of GDP, 1965 and 1987.
Source: *World Development Report 1989*.
Notes: "Agriculture" covers forestry, hunting, and fishing as well as farming. In developing countries subsistence agriculture may not

be reflected in the data because the products are either not exchanged or are bartered. The tendency for developing countries is to underestimate GDP (because of failing to include the product of subsistence agriculture) and to underestimate the agriculture sector's share of total GDP.

Column (3): Primary Commodities as Percent of Merchandise Exports, 1965 and 1987.

Source: *World Development Report 1989*, based on data from United Nations trade data system, International Monetary Fund, and World Bank.

Notes: Merchandise exports include international movements of goods across customs borders. Exports are valued f.o.b. (free on board) and do not include services. Primary commodities include fuels, minerals, and metals as well as other primary commodities such as food and live animals, beverages, tobacco, inedible crude materials, oils, fats, and waxes.

Column (4): Current Account Balance (Millions of Dollars, U.S.), 1987.

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

Notes: Current account balance is given after official transfers. It equals the difference between (1) exports of goods and services as well as inflows of unrequited transfers (private and official receipt of funds for which no service or good is exchanged) and (2) imports of goods and services as well as unrequited transfers to the rest of the world.

Column (5): Total Debt Service as Percent of Exports of Goods and Services, 1987.

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

Notes: Debt Service is the sum of actual repayments of principal and interest made in foreign currencies, goods, or services on long-term, external public and publicly guaranteed debt and private non-guaranteed debt. When compared to exports of goods and services it is one of the conventional measures used to assess the ability of a country to "service" its debt.

Column (6): Official Development Assistance per capita, (US$), 1987.

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

Notes: Includes disbursements from all sources; consists of loans and grants made on concessional financial terms by all bilateral and multilateral sources to promote economic development and welfare.

Column (7): Official Development Assistance as Percent of GNP, 1987.

Source: *World Development Report 1989.*

**TABLE 3: INDICATORS OF EDUCATIONAL EFFORT**

Columns (1)&(2): Total Education Expenditures as Percent of GNP, 1980 and 1987.

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.

Notes: Refers to government capital and current expenditures for education sector as defined by national authority. For the United States, data refer to total public and private expenditure on education. For some countries with centrally-planned economies use was made of the Net Material Product instead of the GNP.

Columns (3) & (4): Total Education as Percent of Government Expenditure, 1980 and 1987.

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.

Notes: Education expenditure defined as above; total government expenditure also includes capital and recurrent costs.

Columns
(5)&(6): Primary Recurrent Expenditures as Percent of Total Education Recurrent Expenditures 1980 and 1987.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: See Table 4 for the duration of primary education for each country. In some countries, a relatively important amount of expenditure, mainly for administration, cannot be allocated to specific levels of education.

Columns
(7)&(8): Primary Per Pupil Education Expenditures, 1980 and 1987, in current US dollars.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: Per pupil calculation varies among countries depending on time in school year for which enrolments are defined. Normally, because of attrition, the later in the school year, the lower the enrolment level, and, thus, the higher the per pupil expenditure level.

Columns
(9)&(10): Proportion of Primary School Pupils in Private Schools, 1980 and 1985
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: Private schools are those not managed by or within the government sector and may include religious institutions, secular not-for-profit institutions, and commercial primary schools (where these exist). Private schools vary within and among countries in terms of their receipt of implicit and explicit subsidies from government.

Columns
(11)&(12): Average Annual Growth Rates in Total Primary Enrolments, 1975–80 and 1980-87.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: Average annual increase in enrolment.

Columns
(13)&(14): Student-Teacher Ratios, Primary Schools, 1980 and around 1987.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: This indicator is compiled by dividing enrolment in primary education by the number of teachers. In some countries the number of teachers is expressed in full-time equivalents. Because of variations in actual distributions of personnel, internal disparities in this indicator often are quite high.

**TABLE 4: INDICATORS OF EDUCATIONAL PROCESS AND RESULTS**

Column (1): Duration of Primary Education in Years.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: The duration of primary schooling as defined by national authority.

Columns
(2)&(3): Gross Enrolment Ratio (around 1987), Male and Female
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: The gross enrolment ratio for primary education relates total enrolment, regardless of age, to the population which, according to national regulations, should be enrolled at this level of education. When this ratio exceeds 90%, the *system* is approaching the capacity to offer universal primary education. However, since the non-enrollees of school age may be in areas different from the over-age enrollees, there may still be a capacity issue in terms of the *distribution* of school capacity by location.

Columns
(4)&(5): Net Enrolment Ratio (around 1987), Male and Female.
Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.
Notes: The net enrolment ratio equals the total enrolment of primary school age children relative to the total number of primary school age children.

Columns (6)(7)&(8): Female Enrolment (1985) as a Percent of Total Primary Enrolment, of Grade 1 Enrolment, and Last Grade of Primary School Enrolment

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.

Notes: Comparison of female percentage of enrolment in Grade 1 and last primary grade provides one indicator of relative drop-out rates between female and male pupils.

Column (9): Percentage of cohort starting primary school around 1985 reaching the final grade.

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.

Notes: The percentage of a cohort of students entering primary school who reach the final grade. The number of grades is given in Column (1).

Columns (10)&(11): Secondary School Gross Enrolment Ratios, Male and Female (around 1987).

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics.

Notes: The gross enrolment ratio for secondary education relates total enrolment regardless of age, to the population which, according to national regulations, should be enrolled at this level of education.

**TABLE 5: INDICATORS OF SOCIAL EFFECTS**

Columns (1)&(2): Adult Literacy Rate (1985), Male and Female.

Source: Compendium of Statistics on illiteracy, UNESCO Office of Statistics (1988).

Notes: Literacy rate equals the percentage of persons aged 15 and over who can read and write. The operational standard for qualifying as literate (and the choice of language for which literacy is established) is set by the appropriate national authority.

Column (3): Under 5 Mortality Rate, 1987.

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the Population Division and the Statistical Office of the United Nations.

Notes: Under-five mortality rate equals the annual number of deaths of children under the age of 5 per 1,000 live births.

Column (4): Life Expectancy at Birth, 1987.

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the United Nations Population Division.

Notes: Life expectancy equals the number of years new-born children would live if subject to the mortality risks prevailing for the cross-section of the population at the time of their birth.

Column (5): Calorie Supply as Percent of Nutrition Requirements, 1985.

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the Food and Agriculture Organization.

Notes: This indicator is calculated by comparing the estimated daily per capita calorie supply with the established nutritional requirements.

Column (6): Total Fertility Rate, 1987.

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from United Nations Population Division.

Notes: Total fertility rate equals the number of children that would be born per woman, if each woman were to live to the end of their child-bearing years and bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

Columns (7)&(8): Percentage Share of Household Income (1975-86), Lowest 40% and Highest 20%.

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1989*, based on data from the World Bank.

Notes: The percentage of private household income as distributed among the lowest 40% of households and the upper 20% of households. Estimates are based on census or sample surveys.

## TABLE 6: PARTICIPATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

The source for all Table 6 data is the*Comparative Analysis of Statistical Data on Adult Education for 84 Countries*, report prepared by R. Carr-Hill and J. Lintott for Office of Statistics, UNESCO, 1985. Original data is from studies and surveys conducted in the individual countries.

Column (1): Year.

Notes: "Year" represent the latest year for which data are available.

Column (2): Adult Education Enrolment.

Notes: Data assimilation is for all forms of adult education although individual country data may be more restricted, e.g., only literacy programs or only adult education activities under the auspices of government agencies. Length of enrolment also varies within and among countries.

Column (3): Population, 15 and Over (in thousands).

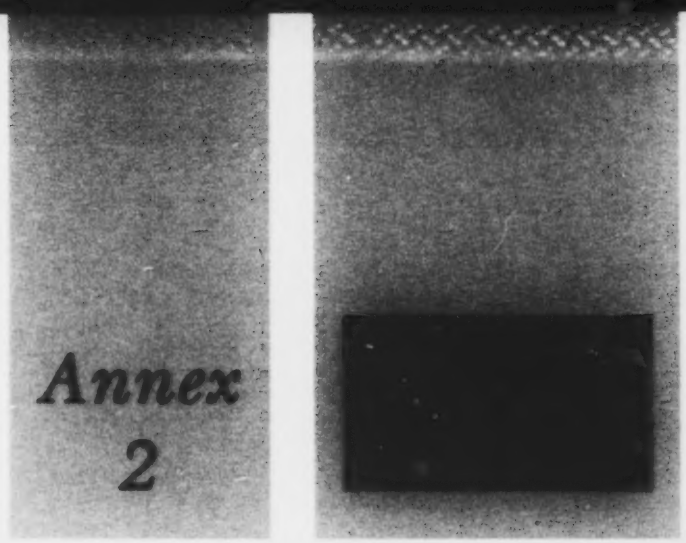
Notes: This population subgroup is used as the "adult" population and is the basis for estimates of participation rates in Column 4.

Column (4): Number of Adult Education Students per 1,000 Population, 15 and Over.

Notes: This indicator is calculated by dividing Column 2 by Column 3 and rounding to the nearest whole number.

Column (5): Women as Proportion of Total Enrolment.

Notes: This indicator suggests overall participation but does not allow analysis of possible variations in gender participation within the various categories of adult education (e.g., women may be less well represented in income generation activities).




# *Financing Primary Schooling: An Analysis of Alternatives*

**Introduction**

As noted in Chapter 5, the mobilization of a commitment to provide Education for All (EFA) must be based on an ability to estimate and then finance the costs of this endeavor. Each country, within its definition of the specific targets to be reached by the year 2000, and its individual structural and cost contexts, will have to estimate the financial requirements for EFA. However, a body of knowledge does exist on the alternative means of improving efficiency and of broadening the economic base of support for EFA.

For the World Conference on Education for All, Messrs. C. Colclough and K. Lewin prepared a paper entitled *Educating All the Children: Meeting the Economic Challenges of the 1990s;* this paper summarizes many of the available policy alternatives and is the basis for this annex. The authors, however, are not responsible for the form and content of this presentation.

**Policy Alternatives**

Six major areas of policy reform exist to assist in improving the financial capacity of nations to support EFA.

1. Unit cost reductions in present system
2. Cycle cost reductions in present system
3. Capital cost reductions in present system
4. Restructuring of educational delivery
5. Redistribution of existing expenditures
6. Developing alternative modes of finance

To those working in developing countries none of the alternatives proposed are "new" and many already have been tried and found to be unacceptable for political, economic, cultural or pedagogical reasons. They are provided here as a "checklist" of alternatives and not as a set of advocated strategies: each country will have to adapt or adopt those alternatives best suited to its context.

*Unit cost reductions* refer primarily to attempts to reduce aggregate teacher costs and to change the teacher-pupil ratios. In many countries teacher salaries already are excessively low so future containment of teacher costs, if necessary and desired, can be accomplished only through the increased uses of lower cost personnel. Reduced teacher-pupil ratios can be a result of class size increases or of multiple shifting of teachers.

*Cycle cost reductions* refer to more effective use of student time through reduced attrition

and the elimination of unproductive repetition.

*Capital cost reduction* alternatives include the use of day versus boarding schools where practical and multiple shifting of facilities when the population of students justifies this. Low maintenance designs also are a key to controlling future costs.

*Restructuring of educational delivery* includes the alternatives of: (1) changing the length of the education cycle, (2) changing the age of entry, (3) introducing organizational and pedagogical reforms, and (4) promoting national service and linking education to production. The primary cycle length increasingly has been standardized at six years but recently has extended to nine years as the "basic education" level for many countries; six years of age is the common entry age – attempts to delay age of entry have encountered serious political opposition.

Among the organizational and pedagogical reforms proposed are increases in the number of days and number of hours of instruction, change in the dependence on lecture (whole class) formats, improved remediation and enrichment opportunities, use of distance education technologies, and of programmed teaching and learning systems. These alternatives may improve efficiency but often do so at a higher aggregate and per pupil cost level. The use of national service requirements and linking education to production activities may have both a pedagogical benefit (by increasing relevance) and a financial one (by providing services or goods to society).

*Redistribution of existing expenditures* may take five major forms (examples given are indicative only):

1. Between sectors – from military/security and debt repayment to education.
2. Between educational delivery systems – from formal to nonformal (including traditional) alternatives.
3. Between levels within education – from higher education to primary.
4. Between institutional types – from public to private, boarding school to day school, vocational/technical to general.
5. Between types of expenditure – capital to recurrent costs, salary recurrent to non-salary recurrent (e.g., instructional materials).

In all such reallocations the goal is to move from the expensive to the less expensive and from noneducational to educational activities.

The *alternative modes of finance* that deserve consideration are:

1. Private schools
2. User charges
3. Loans and scholarships
4. Expanded tax collection
5. New tax forms (graduate tax, payroll tax on employment of graduates, taxes earmarked for education, and lotteries earmarked for education)
6. Expanded forms of community support.

Each of these alternatives must be judged in terms of the same criteria of revenue efficiency and equity by which all revenue schemes are evaluated.

**Reforming Policy**

Colclough and Lewin, based on their analysis of country experiences, identify the most promising set of reforms as including:

- reduced repetition
- double shift teaching
- increased class sizes
- replacement of boarding with day schools
- shift some capital and recurrent cost to communities
- develop new taxes and cost recovery methods for financing tertiary education

They recognize that all of these policies are not appropriate for all contexts and that, in the poorest nations, successful introduction of all of these still may not provide financing adequate for EFA.

Three *final caveats* should be added to this discussion. First, all financing and efficiency alternatives must be considered within the definition of an acceptable quality of EFA. Second, cost reductions are not identical to increased efficiency. Many efficiency improvements in EFA will require more not less money – as noted in the text nothing is more wasteful than expenditures that produce no educational benefits. Third, countries with 20 to 25 percent of its population outside school

can anticipate that, because of the location and marginalization of these populations, the cost of their inclusion will be a significant multiple of present per-pupil costs.

This list of alternative means of increasing efficiency and broadening the economic base for EFA has no obvious answers for the policy maker or educational planner. However, it does offer a starting point for the important debates that must take place in each country over the next decade as all try to attain their EFA targets.

# Annex 3

# *Selected Bibliography*


Asian Development Bank. 1988. *Education and Development in Asia and the Pacific*. Manila: ADB.

Beeby, C. E. 1966. *The Quality of Education in Developing Countries*. Cambridge, Massachusetts : Harvard University Press.

Berrueta-Clement, John R. et.al. 1984. *Changed Lives: The Effects of the Perry Preschool Program on Youths Through Age 19*. Ypsilanti, Michigan: High Scope Press.

Berstecher, Dieter and Roy Carr-Hill. 1990. *Primary Education and Economic Recession in the Developing World Since 1980*. Paris: UNESCO.

Bhola, H. S. *World Trends and Issues in Adult Education*. 1988. Paris: UNESCO.

Carr-Hill, Roy A. 1988. *The Information Base for the Planning of the Diversified Educational Field*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.

Cochrane, Susan. 1986. *The Effects of Education on Fertility and Mortality and the Effects of Education and Urbanization on Fertility*. Washington, D.C.: Education and Training Department, The World Bank.

Colclough, Christopher and Keith Lewin. 1990. "Educating All the Children: The Economic Challenge for the 1990s." Jomtien, Thailand: Unpublished paper presented at WCEFA.

Colclough, Christopher. 1983. "The Impact of Primary Schooling on Economic Development: A Review of the Evidence." *World Development. 10*.3: 167-185.

Colletta, Nat J. and Margaret Sutton. 1989. *Achieving and Sustaining Universal Primary Education: International Experience Relevant to India*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Cornia, Giovanni Andrea, Richard Jolly, and Frances Stewart. 1987. *Adjustment with a Human Face: Protecting the Vulnerable and Promoting Growth*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Farrell, Joseph P. and Stephen P. Heyneman. 1989. *Textbooks in the Developing World: Economic and Educational Choices*. Washington, D.C. : World Bank.

Fuller, Bruce. 1985. *Raising School Quality in Developing Countries: What Investments Boost Learning?* Washington, D.C.: Education and Training Department, The World Bank.

Giere, Ursula. 1987. *Functional Illiteracy in Industrialized Countries: An Analytical Bibliography*. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education.

Glass, G. et. al. 1982. *School class size: Research and Policy.* Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage.

Haddad, Wadi D. 1985. *Teacher Training: A Review of World Bank Experience.* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

Hallak, Jacques. 1990. *Investing in the Future: Setting Educational Priorities in the Developing World.* Paris: IIEP and Pergamon Press.

Heyneman, S. and W. Loxley. 1983. "The effects of primary school quality on academic achievement across twenty-nine high and low income countries." *American Journal of Sociology, 88,* 1162-1194.

Jamison, Dean, and L.J. Lau. 1982. *Farmer Education and Farm Efficiency.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

King, Kenneth. 1988. *Aid and Educational Research in Developing Countries: The Role of the Donor Agencies in the Analysis of Education.* Edinburgh: Centre of African Studies, Edinburgh University.

King, Elizabeth M. *Educating Girls and Women: Investing in Development.* 1990. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

LeVine, Robert A. and Merry I. White. 1986. *Human Conditions: The Cultural Basis of Educational Developments.* New York: Routledge and Kegan Paul Inc.

Lind, Agneta and Anton Johnson. 1986. *Adult Literacy in the Third World: A Review of Objectives and Strategies.* Stockholm: SIDA.

Lockheed, M. and A. Verspoor. 1990. *Improving the Quality of Primary Education: A Review of Policy Options.* Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Myers, Robert and Rachelle Hertenberg. 1987. *The Eleven Who Survive: Toward a Re-Examination of Early Childhood Development Program Options and Costs.* Washington, D.C.: Education and Training Department, The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

*Our Common Future* (1987). World Commission on Enviroment and Development. Great Britian: Oxford University Press.

Plomp, Tjeerd and Donald P. Ely, eds. 1986. "Educational Technology and Mass Media." *International Review of Education* (Special Issue). *32.3.*

Pollitt, Ernesto. 1990. *Malnutrition and Infection in the Classroom.* Paris: Unesco.

Psacharopoulos, George. 1985. "Returns to Education: A Further International Comparison." *Journal of Human Resources. 20.4:* 584-604.

Schiefelbein, E. and J. Farrell. 1984. "Educational and occupational attainment in Chile: The effects of educational quality, attainment, and achievement." *American Journal of Education, 92,* 125-162.

Stromquist, Nelly. 1988. *Empowering Women through Knowledge: Policies and Practices in International Co-operation in Basic Education.* Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.

The World Bank. 1980. *Education Sector Policy.* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

The World Bank. 1980 and 1989. *World Development Report.* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

The World Bank. 1988. *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion.* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

The World Resources Institute and The International Institute for the Environment and Development. 1988-89 *World Resources.* New York: Basic Books.

Thiagarajan, Sivasailam and Aida L. Pasigna. 1988. *Literature Review on the Soft Technologies of Learning.* Cambridge, MA: BRIDGES Research Report No. 2.

UNDP. 1988. *Needs and Strategies for Education and Training in Developing Countries in the 1990s.* New York: UNDP.

UNDP. 1990. *Human Development Report.* New York: UNDP.

UNESCO. 1985. *The Development of Adult Education: Aspects and Trends and Final Report.* Paris: Fourth International Conference on Adult Education.

UNESCO. 1986. *International Yearbook of Education: Primary Education on the Threshold of the Twenty-First Century* (Vol. XXXVIII). Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. 1988. *Statistical Yearbook on Education.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO-UNEP Congress. 1987. *International Strategy for Action in the Field of Environmental Education and Training for the 1990s.* Nairobi/Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO-UNEP. *Unesco/Unicef Cooperative Program.* 1984. Notes, Comments...New Series: Annotated list of numbers 1 to 150. Paris: UNESCO.

UNICEF. 1989. *Children on the Front Line.* New York: UNICEF.

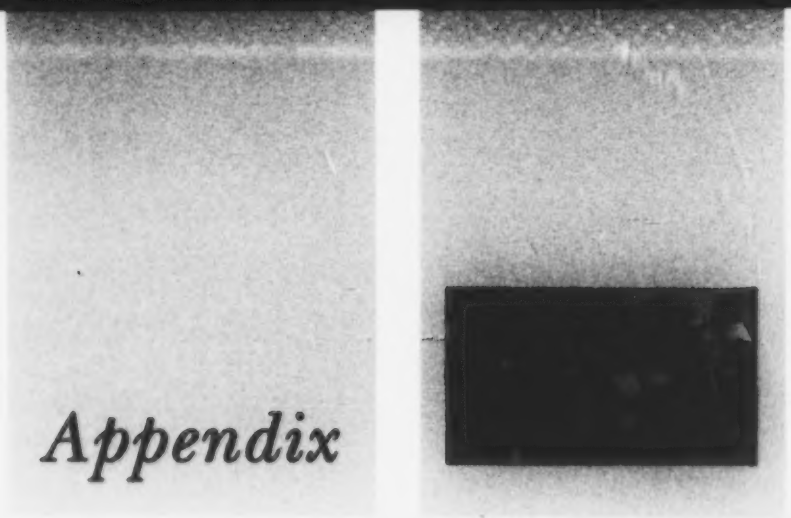
UNICEF. 1989 and 1990. *The State of the World's Children.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

UNICEF. 1989. *Statistics on Children in Unicef Assisted Countries.* New York: UNICEF.

UNFPA. 1989. *State of the World Population Report.* New York: UNFPA.

Wagner, Daniel. (Ed.) *The Future of Literacy in a Changing World.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Windham, Douglas M. 1988. "Effectiveness Indicators in the Economic Analysis of Educational Activities." *International Journal of Educational Research:*. 12.6.



# *Appendix*

## *World Declaration on Education for All*

# World Declaration on Education for All

## *Meeting Basic Learning Needs*

### PREAMBLE

**More than 40 years ago, the nations of the world, speaking through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, asserted that "everyone has a right to education".** Despite notable efforts by countries around the globe to ensure the right to education for all, the following realities persist:

- More than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls, have no access to primary schooling;
- More than 960 million adults, two-thirds of whom are women, are illiterate, and functional illiteracy is a significant problem in all countries, industrialized and developing;
- More than one-third of the world's adults have no access to the printed knowledge, new skills and technologies that could improve the quality of their lives and help them shape, and adapt to, social and cultural change; and
- More than 100 million children and countless adults fail to complete basic education programmes; millions more satisfy the attendance requirements but do not acquire essential knowledge and skills;

At the same time, the world faces daunting problems, notably: mounting debt burdens, the threat of economic stagnation and decline, rapid population growth, widening economic disparities among and within nations, war, occupation, civil strife, violent crime, the preventable deaths of millions of children and widespread environmental degradation. These problems constrain efforts to meet basic learning needs, while the lack of basic education among a significant proportion of the population prevents societies from addressing such problems with strength and purpose.

These problems have led to major setbacks in basic education in the 1980s in many of the least developed countries. In some other countries, economic growth has been available to finance education expansion, but even so, many millions remain in poverty and unschooled or illiterate. In certain industrialized countries, too, cutbacks in government expenditure over the 1980s have led to the deterioration of education.

## 2 World Declaration on Education for All

**Yet the world is also at the threshold of a new century, with all its promise and possibilities. Today, there is genuine progress toward peaceful detente and greater cooperation among nations. Today, the essential rights and capacities of women are being realized. Today, there are many useful scientific and cultural developments. Today, the sheer quantity of information available in the world – much of it relevant to survival and basic well-being – is exponentially greater than that available only a few years ago, and the rate of its growth is accelerating. This includes information about obtaining more life-enhancing knowledge – or learning how to learn. A synergistic effect occurs when important information is coupled with another modern advance – our new capacity to communicate.**

**These new forces, when combined with the cumulative experience of reform, innovation, research and the remarkable educational progress of many countries, make the goal of basic education for all – for the first time in history – an attainable goal.**

Therefore, we participants in the World Conference on Education for All, assembled in Jomtien, Thailand, from 5 to 9 March, 1990:

*Recalling* that education is a fundamental right for all people, women and men, of all ages, throughout our world;

*Understanding* that education can help ensure a safer, healthier, more prosperous and environmentally sound world, while simultaneously contributing to social, economic, and cultural progress, tolerance, and international cooperation;

*Knowing* that education is an indispensable key to, though not a sufficient condition for, personal and social improvement;

*Recognizing* that traditional knowledge and indigenous cultural heritage have a value and validity in their own right and a capacity to both define and promote development;

*Acknowledging* that, overall, the current provision of education is seriously deficient and that it must be made more relevant and qualitatively improved, and made universally available;

*Recognizing* that sound basic education is fundamental to the strengthening of higher levels of education and of

scientific and technological literacy and capacity and thus to self-reliant development; and

*Recognizing* the necessity to give to present and coming generations an expanded vision of, and a renewed commitment to, basic education to address the scale and complexity of the challenge;

proclaim the following

***World Declaration on Education for All:***
***Meeting Basic Learning Needs.***

## EDUCATION FOR ALL: THE PURPOSE

### *ARTICLE 1 • MEETING BASIC LEARNING NEEDS*

1. **Every person — child, youth and adult — shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs.** These needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning. The scope of basic learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures, and inevitably, changes with the passage of time.

2. The satisfaction of these needs empowers individuals in any society and confers upon them a responsibility to respect and build upon their collective cultural, linguistic and spiritual heritage, to promote the education of others, to further the cause of social justice, to achieve environmental protection, to be tolerant towards social, political and religious systems which differ from their own, ensuring that commonly accepted humanistic values and human rights are upheld, and to work for international peace and solidarity in an interdependent world.

3. Another and no less fundamental aim of educational development is the transmission and enrichment of common cultural and moral values. It is in these values that the individual and society find their identity and worth.

4. Basic education is more than an end in itself. It is the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries

may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training.

## EDUCATION FOR ALL: AN EXPANDED VISION AND A RENEWED COMMITMENT

### *ARTICLE 2 • SHAPING THE VISION*

1. **To serve the basic learning needs of all requires more than a recommitment to basic education as it now exists. What is needed is an "expanded vision" that surpasses present resource levels, institutional structures, curricula, and conventional delivery systems while building on the best in current practices.** New possibilities exist today which result from the convergence of the increase in information and the unprecedented capacity to communicate. We must seize them with creativity and a determination for increased effectiveness.

2. As elaborated in Articles 3-7, the expanded vision encompasses:

- Universalizing access and promoting equity;
- Focussing on learning;
- Broadening the means and scope of basic education;
- Enhancing the environment for learning;
- Strengthening partnerships.

3. The realization of an enormous potential for human progress and empowerment is contingent upon whether people can be enabled to acquire the education and the start needed to tap into the ever-expanding pool of relevant knowledge and the new means for sharing this knowledge.

### *ARTICLE 3 • UNIVERSALIZING ACCESS AND PROMOTING EQUITY*

1. **Basic education should be provided to all children, youth and adults.** To this end, basic education services of quality should be expanded, and consistent measures must be taken to reduce disparities.

2. For basic education to be equitable, all children, youth and adults must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning.

3. **The most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of, education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated.**

4. **An active commitment must be made to removing educational disparities. Underserved groups — the poor; street and working children; rural and remote populations; nomads and migrant workers; indigenous peoples; ethnic, racial, and linguistic minorities; refugees; those displaced by war; and people under occupation — should not suffer any discrimination in access to learning opportunities.**

5. **The learning needs of the disabled demand special attention. Steps need to be taken to provide equal access to education to every category of disabled persons as an integral part of the education system.**

### *ARTICLE 4 • FOCUSSING ON LEARNING ACQUISITION*

**Whether or not expanded educational opportunities will translate into meaningful development — for an individual or for society — depends ultimately on whether people actually learn as a result of those opportunities, i.e., whether they incorporate useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills, and values.** The focus of basic education must, therefore, be on actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively upon enrolment, continued participation in organized programmes and completion of certification requirements. Active and participatory approaches are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition and allowing learners to reach their fullest potential. It is, therefore, necessary to define acceptable levels of learning acquisition for educational programmes and to improve and apply systems of assessing learning achievement.

### *ARTICLE 5 • BROADENING THE MEANS AND SCOPE OF BASIC EDUCATION*

**The diversity, complexity, and changing nature of basic learning needs of children, youth and adults necessitates broadening and constantly redefining the scope of basic education to include the following components:**

- *Learning begins at birth.* This calls for early childhood care and initial education. These can be provided through

arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate.

- *The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling.* Primary education must be universal, ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied, and take into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. Supplementary alternative programmes can help meet the basic learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling, provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported.

- *The basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems.* Literacy programmes are indispensable because literacy is a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills. Literacy in the mother-tongue strengthens cultural identity and heritage. Other needs can be served by: skills training, apprenticeships, and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues.

- *All available instruments and channels of information, communications, and social action could be used to help convey essential knowledge and inform and educate people on social issues.* In addition to the traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential towards meeting basic education needs of all.

These components should constitute an integrated system – complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and they should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning.

### *ARTICLE 6 • ENHANCING THE ENVIRONMENT FOR LEARNING*

**Learning does not take place in isolation. Societies, therefore, must ensure that all learners receive the nutrition, health care, and general physical and emotional support they need in order to participate actively in and benefit from their education.** Knowledge and skills that will enhance the learning environment of children

**should be integrated into community learning programmes for adults. The education of children and their parents or other caretakers is mutually supportive and this interaction should be used to create, for all, a learning environment of vibrancy and warmth.**

### *ARTICLE 7 • STRENGTHENING PARTNERSHIPS*

**National, regional, and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all, but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organizational requirement for this task. New and revitalized partnerships at all levels will be necessary:** partnerships among all sub-sectors and forms of education, recognizing the special role of teachers and that of administrators and other educational personnel; partnerships between education and other government departments, including planning, finance, labour, communications, and other social sectors; partnerships between government and. non-governmental organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families. The recognition of the vital role of both families and teachers is particularly important. In this context, the terms and conditions of service of teachers and their status, which constitute a determining factor in the implementation of education for all, must be urgently improved in all countries in line with the joint ILO/ UNESCO Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966). Genuine partnerships contribute to the planning, implementing, managing and evaluating of basic education programmes. When we speak of "an expanded vision and a renewed commitment", partnerships are at the heart of it.

## EDUCATION FOR ALL: THE REQUIREMENTS

### *ARTICLE 8 • DEVELOPING A SUPPORTING POLICY CONTEXT*

1. **Supportive policies in the social, cultural, and economic sectors are required in order to realize the full provision and utitlization of basic education for individual and societal improvement.** The provision of basic education for all depends on political commitment and political will backed by appropriate fiscal measures and reinforced by educational policy reforms and institutional strengthening. Suitable economic, trade, labour, employment and health policies will enhance learners' incentives and contributions to societal development.

2. **Societies should also insure a strong intellectual and scientific environment for basic education. This implies improving higher education and developing scientific research. Close contact with contemporary technological and scientific knowledge should be possible at every level of education.**

### *ARTICLE 9 • MOBILIZING RESOURCES*

1. **If the basic learning needs of all are to be met through a much broader scope of action than in the past, it will be essential to mobilize existing and new financial and human resources, public, private and voluntary.** All of society has a contribution to make, recognizing that time, energy and funding directed to basic education are perhaps the most profound investment in people and in the future of a country which can be made.

2. Enlarged public-sector support means drawing on the resources of all the government agencies responsible for human development, through increased absolute and proportional allocations to basic education services with the clear recognition of competing claims on national resources of which education is an important one, but not the only one. Serious attention to improving the efficiency of existing educational resources and programmes will not only produce more, it can also be expected to attract new resources. The urgent task of meeting basic learning needs may require a reallocation between sectors, as, for example, a transfer from military to educational expenditure. Above all, special protection for basic education will be required in countries undergoing structural adjustment and facing severe external debt burdens. Today, more than ever, education must be seen as a fundamental dimension of any social, cultural, and economic design.

### *ARTICLE 10 • STRENGTHENING INTERNATIONAL SOLIDARITY*

1. **Meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility. It requires international solidarity and equitable and fair economic relations in order to redress existing economic disparities.** All nations have valuable knowledge and experiences to share for designing effective educational policies and programmes.

2. Substantial and long-term increases in resources for basic education will be needed. The world community, including intergovern-

**mental agencies and institutions, has an urgent responsibility to alleviate the constraints that prevent some countries from achieving the goal of education for all. It will mean the adoption of measures that augment the national budgets of the poorest countries or serve to relieve heavy debt burdens. Creditors and debtors must seek innovative and equitable formulae to resolve these burdens, since the capacity of many developing countries to respond effectively to education and other basic needs will be greatly helped by finding solutions to the debt problem.**

**3. Basic learning needs of adults and children must be addressed wherever they exist. Least developed and low-income countries have special needs which require priority in international support for basic education in the 1990s.**

**4. All nations must also work together to resolve conflicts and strife, to end military occupations, and to settle displaced populations, or to facilitate their return to their countries of origin, and ensure that their basic learning needs are met. Only a stable and peaceful environment can create the conditions in which every human being, child and adult alike, may benefit from the goals of this Declaration.**

• • •

**We, the participants in the World Conference on Education for All, reaffirm the right of all people to education.** This is the foundation of our determination, singly and together, to ensure education for all.

We commit ourselves to act cooperatively through our own spheres of responsibility, taking all necessary steps to achieve the goals of education for all. Together we call on governments, concerned organizations and individuals to join in this urgent undertaking.

The basic learning needs of all can and must be met. There can be no more meaningful way to begin the International Literacy Year, to move forward the goals of the United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons (1983-92), the World Decade for Cultural Development (1988-97), the Fourth United Nations Development Decade (1991-2000), of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, and of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. There has never been a

more propitious time to commit ourselves to providing basic learning opportunities for all the people of the world.

We adopt, therefore, this ***World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs*** and agree on the ***Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs***, to achieve the goals set forth in this ***Declaration***.

*Text design and production by Michael Alloy • Columbia, Maryland U.S.A.*

WCEFA Liaison
ADG/Education
UNESCO
7, Place de Fontenoy
Paris 75700, France

WCEFA Liaison
Bureau of Programme
& Policy Evaluation
UNDP
One United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA

WCEFA Liaison
Programme Division
UNICEF
Three United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA

WCEFA Liaison
Population & Human Resources
Department
WORLD BANK
1818 H Street N.W.
Washington, DC 20433, USA